Domoic acid disruption of neurodevelopment and behavior involves altered myelination in the spinal cord

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ABSTRACT

Harmful algal blooms (HABs) produce potent neurotoxins that threaten human health. Early life exposure to low levels of the HAB toxin domoic acid (DomA) produces long-lasting behavioral deficits, but the mechanisms involved are unknown. Using zebrafish, we investigated the developmental window of susceptibility to low doses of DomA and examined cellular and molecular targets. Larvae exposed to DomA at 2 days post-fertilization (dpf), but not at 1 or 4 dpf, showed consistent deficits in startle behavior including reduced responsiveness and altered kinematics. Similarly, myelination in the spinal cord was disorganized after exposure only at 2 dpf. Time-lapse imaging revealed disruption of the initial stages of myelination. DomA down-regulated genes required for maintaining myelin structure and the axonal cytoskeleton. These results identify a developmental window of susceptibility to DomA-induced behavioral deficits involving altered gene expression and disrupted myelin structure, and establish a zebrafish model for investigating the underlying mechanisms.

30 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**

INTRODUCTION

Domoic acid (DomA) is a potent neurotoxin that is produced by diatoms in the genus *Pseudo-nitzschia*. DomA exerts its toxicity by binding to and activating ionotropic glutamate receptors, particularly the α -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) and kainate (KA) subtypes.¹ Human exposure to DomA occurs primarily through the consumption of contaminated seafood. Acute exposure to high levels of DomA leads to amnesic shellfish poisoning, with symptoms ranging from mild gastrointestinal issues to memory loss, seizures, coma, and death.²⁻⁴ To protect adults from these acute effects, regulatory limits of 20 μ g DomA per gram of shellfish tissue have been established.^{5,6} However, seafood with measurable levels of DomA below these regulatory limits is still widely harvested and consumed. This may have important public health consequences, especially for exposures that occur during embryonic and early postnatal development when animals are often more sensitive to neurotoxicants.⁷⁻⁹

Research in animal models has demonstrated that developing animals are exposed to DomA and more sensitive than adults to DomA. For example, only one-tenth the dose of DomA is required to induce overt behavioral toxicity in postnatal rats compared to adults.¹⁰⁻¹² Even within the postnatal period, rats are generally more sensitive at earlier postnatal stages.¹² Both placental transfer and lactation are potential routes of DomA exposure during development. DomA readily crosses the placenta, making its way into the fetal brain and accumulating in fetal fluids.^{13,14} Amniotic fluid can serve as a reservoir for DomA,¹⁵⁻¹⁷ suggesting that fetuses could experience prolonged exposure to DomA following a single maternal exposure. DomA can also be transferred to breast milk. DomA has been measured in the milk of sea lions consuming DomA-contaminated prey.¹⁸ In lactating rats injected with DomA, the toxin is detectable in both the maternal plasma and the milk,²¹ and persists in the milk much longer than it does in the plasma.¹⁹

A wide range of lasting behavioral deficits can occur following either prenatal or postnatal exposure to DomA. These behavioral effects occur even at doses that do not lead to overt signs of toxicity either in mothers (in the case of prenatal exposures) or in the pups themselves (for postnatal exposures). Rodents exposed prenatally to DomA exhibit aberrant exploratory behaviors,²⁰⁻²² subtle motor coordination deficits,²¹ and in some cases deficits in contextual learning.^{21,20} Rodents exposed postnatally display seizures when exposed to novel

environments,^{11,23} and also have aberrant drug-seeking behaviors as assessed by nicotine place preference tests.^{24,25}

Together, these studies indicate that developmental exposure to DomA leads to lasting behavioral deficits.^{20–22} However, the cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying these deficits are poorly understood. To elucidate these mechanisms, we used zebrafish as a model. Zebrafish have brain structures and sensory-motor pathways that are homologous to those of humans.^{26,27} Furthermore, the transparency of zebrafish embryos and the availability of transgenic lines allow us to directly observe critical cellular processes during early development.^{28–31} Moreover, larval zebrafish have simple behaviors that are driven by well-characterized neural circuits and comprised of known cell types, allowing us to link behavior to the underlying structural and cellular targets.^{32,33}

The goal of this study was to identify the behavioral, structural, and transcriptional changes from low-dose exposures to DomA during critical periods in early development. Using intravenous microinjection, we were able to deliver single doses at specific developmental times that spanned late embryonic (1 day post fertilization, or dpf) to larval stages (4 dpf). We used the well-characterized startle response behavior to identify functional effects from domoic acid toxicity. To assess potential structural changes from exposures, transgenic lines that have fluorescently-labeled myelin sheaths were used to assess changes in myelin structures over time. Finally, transcriptional changes resulting from exposures were identified using RNA sequencing.

RESULTS

Developmental exposure to DomA at 2 dpf affects responsiveness to auditory/vibrational stimuli

To elucidate the developmental windows of susceptibility to DomA, we established a zebrafish exposure model involving intravenous injection of DomA into embryos or larvae between 1 and 4 dpf, and then assessed molecular, cellular, and behavioral endpoints at later times (3–7 dpf) (*Materials and Methods*; *Fig. 1A*).

Injection of DomA at low doses (0.09-0.14 ng) caused transient, acute effects that resolved within one day of exposure and did not lead to appreciable mortality (*Supplemental Results and Discussion; Supplemental Fig.1*).

We assessed the functional impact of developmental DomA exposure by measuring startle response behavior during the larval stage (7 dpf) of development. We first assessed responsiveness—the ability of fish to react to auditory/vibrational (A/V) stimuli—by giving 7 replicate stimuli and calculating the percent response for each fish. Fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf had reduced responsiveness to A/V stimuli at all doses tested (0.09-0.18 ng) ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 2). Fish exposed to DomA at 1 dpf had reduced responsiveness when exposed to doses ≥ 0.13 ng ($p \leq 0.001$), while those exposed to DomA at 4 dpf had reduced responsiveness only when exposed to the highest dose (0.18 ng) tested ($p < 1e-4$). Fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf were more sensitive than those exposed at 1 or 4 dpf as only fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf had significantly reduced responsiveness to A/V stimuli at the lowest dose tested (0.09 ng).

DomA exposure at 2 dpf affects startle response kinematics

During the larval startle response, larvae perform a distinctive ‘c’ bend as the head and body bend together at a high angular velocity (Supplemental Video 1). Kinematics that underlie this ‘c’ bend include bend angle and maximal angular velocity (Mav), which we used to measure DomA-induced changes to startle kinematics. We evaluated kinematics for the two types of startle responses: short latency (SLC) and long latency (LLC) startle responses (Supplemental Fig. 2; *Materials and Methods*).

Exposure to DomA at 2 dpf led to consistent kinematic deficits at all doses tested and in all experimental trials. Fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf had both reduced bend angles and slower maximal angular velocities relative to vehicle-injected controls; these behavioral deficits were evident with both SLC (Fig. 3) and LLC startle responses (Fig. 4).

In contrast to exposure at 2 dpf, exposure at 1 and 4 dpf to the lowest dose of DomA tested (0.09 ng) did not lead to any kinematic deficits for either type of startle (SLC or LLC) (Figs. 3, 4). At higher doses (0.13 – 0.18 ng), exposure to DomA at 1 dpf led to kinematic deficits that differed

by startle response type. Fish exposed to DomA (≥ 0.13 ng) at 1 dpf had reduced bend angles and slower maximal angular velocities, particularly when they performed the LLC startle responses (Fig. 4). These fish also had significant kinematic deficits when performing the SLC responses, but this was primarily in reductions to bend angle rather than slower maximal angular velocities (Fig. 3). Exposures to DomA at 4 dpf did not result in consistent effects on kinematics. For example, fish exposed to 0.18 ng DomA at 4 dpf had significantly reduced bend angles in only 1 out of 3 trials (Fig. 3). Furthermore, the type of kinematic deficits varied across trials. In 1 of the 3 trials, fish exposed to 0.18 ng DomA had reduced maximum angular velocities and bend angles with SLC startles but not LLC startles. In another trial, fish exposed to DomA at 0.13 ng had deficits in LLC kinematics but not SLC kinematics (Fig. 3 and 4). Thus, while exposures to DomA at all developmental stages tested (1, 2, and 4 dpf) resulted in some kinematic deficits at higher doses, only those at 2 dpf consistently led to kinematic deficits in all trials and across the entire range of doses tested.

To directly compare the effect of both dose and day of exposure on startle kinematics, we performed a nonparametric multivariate factorial analysis on a subset of trials where fish from the same breeding cohort were exposed to DomA at 1, 2, and 4 dpf. We focused on LLC startles because these responses were shown by the previous analysis to be more sensitive to treatment differences. At the lowest dose of DomA (0.09 ng), startle kinematic parameters were significantly influenced by the interaction between treatment and day of exposure ($F(2, 520)=21.6$, $p=9.6\text{e-}10$ for bend angle and $-F(2, 520)=16.5$, $p=1.1\text{e-}7$ for Mav) (Supplemental Fig. 3A). Treatment effects from exposure to DomA at 2 dpf were distinct from treatment effects from exposures at 1 or 4 dpf ($p < 1\text{e-}3$). There were no differences in the effects of DomA from exposure at 1 dpf versus 4 dpf, and the kinematics were not significantly different between DomA-exposed fish and their respective controls at these two exposure times. Thus, at the lowest doses of DomA (0.09 ng), exposure at 2 dpf led to distinct kinematic deficits that were not found at 1 or 4 dpf.

With exposure to the intermediate doses of DomA (0.13- 0.14 ng), the interaction between treatment and day of exposure remained significant for both bend angle ($F(2, 474)=23.0$, $p=2.96\text{e-}10$) and maximal angular velocity ($F(2, 474)=19.9$, $p=4.84\text{e-}9$) (Supplemental Fig. 3B).

Similar to the results with the lowest dose of DomA, exposure to 0.13 ng DomA at 2 dpf led to significant kinematic deficits relative to exposures at 1 and at 4 dpf ($p < 1e-5$). Additionally, fish exposed to intermediate doses of DomA at 1 dpf had reduced bend angles and maximum angular velocities, but these deficits were less pronounced compared to those following exposure at 2 dpf (bend angle comparison estimate between 1 dpf – 2 dpf = -140.9 ($p = 4.35e-6$); maximal angular velocity comparison estimate = -147.92 ($p = 1.57e-6$)).

DomA exposure at 2 dpf disrupts myelination in the spinal cord

These startle response deficits could arise from myelin defects. Proper myelination is critical for rapid startle responses, and mutations that disrupt myelin structure cause reduced angular velocities, shallower bend angles, and increased latencies of startle.³⁴ To determine whether disrupted myelination underlies the DomA-induced deficits in startle response, we exposed fish with labelled myelin sheaths (*Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)*³⁵) to a range of DomA doses and then assessed myelination during the larval stages (Fig. 5A).

Exposed fish were imaged at 5 dpf using confocal microscopy (Fig. 5B). The severity of myelin defects was scored blindly on the scale of 0-4 (Fig. 5D and Supplemental Fig. 4). Exposure to DomA caused myelin sheath defects, the prevalence and severity of which were influenced by day of exposure (Fig. 5C,D). Fish exposed to DomA at 1 dpf had no visible myelin defects ($n = 31$). In contrast, 32% of fish exposed at 1.5 dpf had visible myelin defects ($n = 11$ out of 34). Defects included the overall reduction in labeled myelin, along with the appearance of unusual circular membranes (Fig. 5B). The majority of fish (91%) exposed at 2 dpf showed myelin defects ($n = 96$ out of 106). The prevalence of these defects remained high for fish exposed at 2.5 dpf, with 35 out of 40 (88%) exhibiting a myelin defect. However, these myelin phenotypes were less severe, with 2.5 dpf-exposed larvae having milder myelin sheath defects compared to those exposed to 2 dpf. In comparison, very few fish exposed to DomA at 4 dpf had disrupted myelin sheaths ($n = 2$ out of 46).

Confocal imaging data suggested that fish exposed at 2 dpf had more severe and more prevalent myelin defects compared to those exposed to DomA at other developmental periods. To confirm this, we performed additional experiments in which fish were exposed to DomA (at various

doses and times) and then imaged at 5 dpf using widefield epifluorescence microscopy (Fig. 6). This provided the increased throughput to statistically model the effects of DomA dose and the timing of exposure on the distribution and prevalence of the observed myelin sheath defects.

To determine whether the day of exposure influenced the appearance and prevalence of myelin defects, we performed a pairwise ANOVA test to compare an initial model, with only DomA dose as the predictor, to an alternative model with both dose and day of exposure as predictors. Incorporating the day of exposure significantly improved its predictive power ($p < 1e-16$), indicating that timing of DomA exposure influenced myelin deficits.

We then determined whether DomA exposures that occurred during particular periods in development led to a higher prevalence of specific myelin defects. We found that the odds of fish exhibiting phenotypes from category 1-4 were higher when exposures occurred at 2, 2.5, and 3 dpf relative to exposures that occurred at 1 dpf (Supplemental Table 22, $p < 1e-7$ for 2 dpf exposed). Of these time periods, exposures at 2 dpf had the highest odds of having fish with these myelin defects.

To determine whether these myelin phenotypes observed at 5 dpf persist, fish were also imaged at 6 and 7 dpf (Fig. 7). Similar to imaging at 5 dpf, fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf and then imaged at 6 or 7 dpf had a significantly higher incidence of myelin defects compared to control fish. Furthermore, the higher the dose of DomA (delivered at 2 dpf), the more likely it was for the fish to exhibit all of the myelin phenotypes observed (Fig. 7A and 7B). These results indicate that DomA exposure, particularly at 2 dpf, leads to myelin defects that persist for at least seven days after exposure.

Time-lapse imaging shows that domoic acid perturbs the initial stages of myelin sheath formation

We observed very few myelination defects or behavioral phenotypes in larvae exposed to DomA at 4 dpf, a time point after the onset of myelination. This suggests that DomA does not affect established sheaths, but rather may perturb the formation of nascent myelin. DomA-exposed fish have perturbed myelin sheaths by 3 dpf (the earliest development period at which myelin sheaths

are established) (Fig. 8A). To directly visualize the initial stages of myelin sheath formation, we performed time-lapse imaging in double transgenic fish (*Tg:sox10:RFP*; *Tg:nkx2.2a:mEGFP*), in which cells of the oligodendrocyte lineage—the cells responsible for myelination in the central nervous system—are labeled. Imaging the axon wrapping and nascent myelin sheath formation from 2.5-3 dpf confirmed that oligodendrocytes in DomA-exposed larvae were unable to form elongated sheaths, but rather formed unusual circular membranes (n=5 for controls, n= 6 for DomA exposed larvae) (Fig. 8B, Supplemental Video 2, 3).

Domoic acid exposure alters expression of genes involved in axonal growth and myelination

To identify the gene expression changes that accompany the myelination and startle deficits, whole-embryo RNAseq was performed on embryos exposed to 0.14 ng DomA at 2 dpf and then sampled at 3 and 7 dpf (Fig. 9A).

RNA sequencing yielded an average of 21 million raw reads per sample. Of these, 77.6% were uniquely mapped to the zebrafish genome. A multidimensional scaling (MDS) plot revealed clustering by both developmental stage (3 dpf vs. 7 dpf) and breeding clutch (3 breeding trios) (Fig. 9B). This indicates that the differences in gene expression were driven primarily by developmental stage and breeding clutch. However, a number of genes were identified as being differentially expressed in response to DomA.

Statistical analysis revealed differential expression of 82 genes at 3 dpf (28 hours post exposure), and 10 genes at 7 dpf in DomA-exposed fish versus controls (Fig. 9 C, D). Among the 82 genes differentially expressed at 3 dpf, 51 genes were down-regulated and 31 were up-regulated in DomA-exposed larvae as compared to controls.

Pathway analysis of the differentially expressed genes (DEGs; DomA vs. control) indicated an overrepresentation of the GO biological process terms protein depolarization and microtubule depolarization. The genes represented under these GO terms include genes in the stathmin family. Two out of three stathmin genes were up-regulated, and one was down-regulated in DomA-exposed fish.

Significant human phenology phenotypes associated with the down-regulated genes included peripheral axonal degeneration, segmental peripheral demyelination/remyelination, and myelin outfoldings. Several genes required for the maintenance of axonal and myelin structure (*neflb*, *nefmb*, *nefma*, *nefla*, *mpba*, *mpz*) were downregulated in DomA-exposed fish relative to controls, and were overrepresented in the human phenology phenotypes (Fig.10). There were no human phenology phenotypes associated with up-regulated genes.

At 7 dpf, there were only ten DEGs, with 9 down-regulated and 1 up-regulated in DomA-exposed fish relative to the controls (Fig. 9D). Comparison of DEGs from 3 and 7 dpf revealed 4 out of the 10 genes to be common to both the time points. Among these, 3 were down-regulated and 1 was up-regulated, with only 2 being annotated. Two of the three shared down-regulated genes were neurofilament genes required for maintaining axonal integrity (*nefmb* and *neflb*).

DISCUSSION

It is well known that early development is a period of enhanced sensitivity to effects of DomA exposure, and that low-doses of DomA can lead to persistent behavioral deficits^{10–12,20–22,24,25}. However, the mechanisms that underlie these changes are largely unknown. This study identified the period around 2 dpf as a window of susceptibility to DomA neurodevelopmental toxicity and then characterized the resulting molecular, structural, and behavioral consequences of exposures during this period. Exposure to DomA during this window led to changes in gene expression, disruption of myelin sheath formation in the spinal cord, and aberrant startle behavior.

A novel exposure method uncovers a window of susceptibility to low doses of DomA

This study established zebrafish as a model for investigating the mechanisms of toxicity from low-dose exposures to DomA during development. Previous developmental DomA exposure studies in zebrafish were done by injecting DomA into the yolk during the early embryonic stages (512-1000 cell stage).^{36,37} However, the DomA doses that led to behavioral phenotypes were also those that resulted in high mortality rates and lasting neurotoxic symptoms. To build on this work, we used a novel exposure method in which DomA was delivered intravenously at different periods in development – from the embryonic to the larval stages. Using this method, we were able to find a window of susceptibility for low doses of DomA (nominal doses 3- to

260-fold lower than those used previously) at which structural and behavioral effects occurred with no appreciable mortality and minimal gross morphological defects. In particular, the period around 2 dpf was identified as the window of susceptibility for nominal doses of DomA that ranged from 0.09-0.14 ng per embryo.

Startle response deficits are dependent on dose and timing of exposure

Startle response behavior was used as a functional read out of developmental neurotoxicity. Fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf (but not 1 and 4 dpf) had aberrant startle behavior at all doses tested (0.09-0.18 ng). In particular, fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf had reduced responsiveness, increased latency, slower maximal angular velocities, and lower bend angles relative to controls (Figs. 2-4). This suggests that there is a window of susceptibility to low-dose (< 0.18 ng) DomA exposure at around 2 dpf that leads to a functional change in behavior.

Exposure to DomA at 2 dpf disrupts myelin formation

Similar to the behavioral results, only fish exposed at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) showed consistent defects in myelination within the spinal cord (Figs. 5B,C, 6B). DomA-exposed larvae had an overall reduction in labeled myelin, along with the appearance of unusual circular membranes (Figs. 5B, 6B). These deficits were visible as early as 3 dpf, when nascent myelin sheaths are present (Fig. 8), and persisted until at least 7 dpf, indicating that initial formation of myelin is perturbed and does not recover within 4 days post-exposure (Fig. 7).

The window of susceptibility to DomA corresponds to the critical period for oligodendrocyte development

It is possible that 2 dpf is the window of susceptibility because DomA perturbs specific developmental processes that occur within this time period. While most of the early neurons have already differentiated by 2 dpf, the oligodendrocyte lineage – the lineage that myelinates axons in the central nervous system – is just beginning to migrate and differentiate during this period.^{38,39} DomA exposure at 2 dpf may perturb critical processes in oligodendrocyte development, leading to the observed disrupted myelination.

Both myelinating oligodendrocytes and their precursors express functional ionotropic glutamate receptors, making them potential cellular targets for DomA.^{40,41} Previous studies have shown that kainate, a structural analog of DomA, causes cell death in oligodendrocyte primary cell cultures, at concentrations comparable to those affecting neurons.^{42–45} Binding to and activating AMPA receptors inhibits the proliferation and differentiation of oligodendrocyte precursor cells into mature oligodendrocytes *in vitro*.^{46,47} Mature oligodendrocytes have also been shown to undergo demyelination after chronic direct infusion of kainate on the optic nerves.⁴⁸ All of this suggests that DomA may alter oligodendrocyte development, and that exposure to DomA at 2 dpf may disrupt critical processes important for OPC proliferation, differentiation, or myelin sheath formation.

Only one previous study has assessed myelin following developmental exposure to DomA. Eleven week-old juvenile mice exposed *in utero* during gestational days 11.5 and 14.5, but not 17.5, had a reduced staining for the myelin-associated glycoprotein (MAG) in their cerebral cortices.²⁰ This suggests that there may be periods in early development that are more sensitive to exposure to DomA, leading to these myelination deficits. Indeed, it is possible that sensitivity at the early periods is due to disruptions in oligodendrocyte development, thereby altering their ability to form myelin sheaths during the postnatal period.^{49,50} Our findings extend this work by identifying altered myelination in the spinal cord and revealing that DomA does not disrupt already established myelin sheaths but rather perturbs the initial formation of the sheaths during a specific window in development. Consistent with this, we saw very few myelin defects when DomA exposure occurred at 4 dpf – a time point after nascent myelin has been established (see below).

Extrinsic factors that may influence the critical window for DomA toxicity

In zebrafish, 4 dpf is a time period at which myelin sheaths are already established. The absence of a myelin phenotype following exposures at 4 dpf suggests that DomA, at least at the doses used here, may not disrupt already established sheaths but rather may perturb the initial formation of myelin sheaths. Time-lapse imaging of the initial stages of axon wrapping and nascent myelination (from 2.5-3 dpf), provides additional evidence that DomA affects the ability of oligodendrocytes to initially wrap axons and form elongated myelin sheaths (Fig. 8B).

In addition to the intrinsic sensitivity of developing oligodendrocytes, it is likely that the 2 dpf window of susceptibility is also influenced by extrinsic factors that affect the distribution and availability of DomA to the cells and tissues of interest. One process that may influence DomA availability in the central nervous system is the development of the blood-brain barrier (BBB) – a structure that separates the blood from the brain parenchyma.⁵¹ The BBB is composed of tight junctions between endothelial cells that seal the intercellular cleft and prevent the diffusion of water-soluble molecules.^{52–54} As the BBB forms between 3–10 dpf, it progressively excludes smaller molecules over time. Thus, DomA may be excluded from the central nervous system to a greater degree during developmental periods past 2 dpf as the BBB matures.

DomA may also be less accessible to cell targets of interest later in development due to relatively higher excretion rates as the kidney matures. DomA is primarily cleared from the plasma via the kidneys, and nephrectomies in rodent models increase the plasma half-life of DomA.^{55–57} In zebrafish, glomerular filtration begins at around 2 dpf, while full maturation of the kidney occurs by 4 dpf.^{58,59} Thus, DomA may be more readily cleared during periods in development after 2 dpf.

Transcriptional changes suggest defects in axon and myelin structures

RNAseq analysis identified genes and pathways that were consistent with the imaging and behavioral data. DomA exposure down-regulated genes required for maintaining myelin structure, including myelin protein zero (*mpz*) and (*mbpa*), along with genes required for maintaining axonal structure (*nefla*, *neflab*, *nefma*, *nefmb*) (Fig. 10). Thus, it is possible that DomA may be primarily targeting axons, and that the myelination defects may be a secondary effect. Alternatively, DomA may perturb oligodendrocyte development and myelin wrapping, leading to later axonal dysfunction. Further work is underway to investigate the potential axonal targets of DomA toxicity and to assess the contribution of the axonal disruptions to the myelin sheath phenotypes that we characterized here.⁶⁰

RNAseq data show an increase in glial fibrillary acidic protein (*gfap*) expression following exposure to DomA. *gfap* is an intermediate filament protein whose upregulation in mammals is a

hallmark of reactive gliosis – the response of glial cells following mechanical injury, excitotoxicity, or ischemia.^{61,62} In zebrafish, *gfap* expression is delayed following mechanical injury, and is expressed during the proliferation and recovery stages.^{63–65} The upregulation of *gfap* at 3 dpf suggests that exposure to DomA at 2 dpf may lead to injury and trigger repair mechanisms associated with increased *gfap* expression.

In addition, stathmin genes were overrepresented in our dataset. Stathmins destabilize microtubules by sequestering free tubulin. They are highly expressed in the developing nervous system and play critical roles in modulating neurite outgrowth and branching.^{66,67} It has been shown that the dysregulation of different stathmin genes (either through down- or up-regulation) can lead to alterations in microtubule density and axonal integrity.^{67–69}

Implications for human health

Timing and targets. This study provides a careful examination of potential windows of susceptibility to DomA exposure. The identification of key processes disrupted during these windows of susceptibility has important implications for identifying hazards for early developmental exposures in humans. Unlike in zebrafish, myelination in humans occurs over a prolonged period, starting *in utero* and continuing into early childhood and adolescence. The progression of myelination is mostly conserved across species, with myelination commencing in the periphery, brainstem, and spinal cord, then progressing rostrally to the forebrain.^{70,71} The most widespread and rapid period of myelination in humans occurs within the first two years of infancy.^{72,73} While most of the major tracts are myelinated by 3-5 years of age, myelination is now known to continue into adulthood, especially in cortical regions where changes in myelination are associated with experience and learning new skills.^{74,75} Thus, for humans, there may not be a single window of susceptibility, but rather multiple windows; domoic acid may perturb myelin formation in specific regions of the nervous system in which myelination coincides with the timing of exposures.

In this study, we showed that myelination was perturbed in the spinal cord – an understudied target tissue for domoic acid toxicity. Only one other study in rodents has investigated the spinal cord as a target tissue for DomA exposures. Wang et al. (2000) found that postnatal exposures to

high doses of DomA led to spinal cord lesions by 2 hours post exposure, even in the absence of any histological damage to selected brain regions, including the well-known target, the hippocampus.⁷⁶ Our study confirms the spinal cord as a potential target, and identifies myelination as the process perturbed in the spinal cord.

Behavioral analogies. We used startle response behavior as a functional readout of neurodevelopmental toxicity. Deficits in the kinematics of startle responses are reminiscent of motor deficits found in incidental human exposures, chronic exposures in primates, and developmental exposures in rodents. Adult humans acutely exposed to DomA developed sensorimotor neuropathy and axonopathy as assessed by electromyography.⁷⁷ A subset of the primates exposed orally at or near the accepted daily tolerable dose of 0.075 mg/kg developed visible hand tremors.⁷⁸ Rodents prenatally exposed to DomA (PND 10-17) developed aberrant gait patterns including impaired interlimb coordination and aberrant step sequence patterns.²¹

While there is evidence that DomA can perturb motor function, developmental exposures to DomA in rodents have not led to reductions in startle response amplitude during baseline conditions (prior to habituation or pre-pulse inhibition tests).^{21,79-81} This may be because exposures to DomA in these rodent models were done during a period that does not correspond to development of the startle circuit. Furthermore, there are some notable differences between rodent and fish startle, including distinct baseline startle kinematics and variations in the specific neuronal subsets in the circuits.⁸²⁻⁸⁴ Despite these differences, measuring startle response behavior in fish provides a tool to assess sensory processing and motor control and how these processes are perturbed by toxin exposure.

Doses and toxicokinetics. In all previous studies involving developmental exposure to DomA, ‘low doses’ have been defined based on the absence of acute neurotoxic symptoms, rather than by a specific dose. ‘Low doses’ are those that do not lead to classic acute symptoms that include tremors, scratching, and convulsions either in mothers (prenatal exposures) or in the pups directly exposed to DomA (postnatal exposures). While our study used nominal doses that were 3- to 260-fold lower than those used previously in zebrafish, these doses still led to transient neurotoxic effects in embryos. However, when directly comparing the weight-normalized

amount of DomA, these doses are comparable to those used in the majority of the postnatal rodent studies.^{11,23,79,80,85-88} Assuming a 1.4 mg wet weight per embryo,³⁶ the dosages at which embryos consistently exhibited myelin defects and behavioral deficits were 0.06-0.10 mg/kg DomA. In comparison, rodents who showed behavioral deficits following postnatal exposure were dosed subcutaneously with 7 injections of 0.005 and 0.020 mg/kg DomA between PND 8-14, leading to a comparable cumulative DomA dosage of 0.035-0.14 mg/kg.

The main challenge for translating findings in animal models to humans is the dearth of human exposure and toxicokinetic data. Human exposures to DomA are only estimated from consumption data, average weights of adults, and measured DomA concentrations in shellfish. Furthermore, the toxicokinetic behavior of DomA in humans is not well known. However, work in nonhuman primates shows that oral exposures to DomA lead to extended half-lives (almost 10x the length of the half-life following intravenous exposures).⁸⁹ Furthermore, chronic exposure at or near the recognized tolerable daily intake level (0.075 and 0.150 mg/kg) leads to persistent hand tremors and disruptions to whole-brain connectivity.⁷⁸

Even less information exists about the elimination and distribution in DomA in fetuses when mothers are exposed to DomA. One study in rodents showed that at one hour following intravenous injection of Dom A at GD13, the same concentrations of DomA were found in fetal brains, amniotic fluid, and maternal brains.¹³ This suggests that earlier in development there are no barriers for DomA entry to the fetal brain and that DomA in the fetal brain reaches equilibrium concentrations with DomA in the amniotic fluid. Emerging evidence from marine mammals shows that DomA can remain in the fetal fluids (amniotic and allantoic fluids) over prolonged periods of time.^{16,17} Thus, DomA may be recirculated within the fetal fluid compartments, allowing for continuous exposures in fetuses, even when maternal plasma has reached undetectable levels of DomA.

CONCLUSIONS

DomA is a well-known developmental neurotoxin. However, few studies have been able to identify the cellular and molecular processes that underlie the observed behavioral deficits seen following developmental exposures. Using zebrafish, we were able to deliver DomA at specific

developmental times and link behavioral deficits to structural changes in the neural circuit required for the behavior. The results from this study show that there is a critical window of susceptibility to DomA, and that exposure leads to altered expression of key axonal and myelin structural genes, disruptions to myelination, and later perturbations to startle behavior. These results establish the zebrafish as a model for investigating the cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying DomA-induced developmental neurotoxicity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fish husbandry and lines used

These studies were approved by the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution Animal Care and Use Committee (Assurance D16-00381 from the NIH Office of Laboratory Animal Welfare). Fish were maintained in recirculating tank systems that were specifically designed for zebrafish culture (Aquatic Habitats Inc., Apopka, FL). Temperature, lighting, and water quality were monitored daily and maintained according to recommendations from the Zebrafish International Resource Center. Fish were fed twice daily, once with live brine shrimp and once with the pellet feed Gemma Micro 300 (Skretting Inc., Tooele, UT). The afternoon before breeding, males and females were separated with a divider. The morning of the breeding, dividers were removed, and embryo collectors – containers with mesh on the top that let embryos filter to a catch basin – were placed in tanks with multiple breeding pairs for batch breeding unless otherwise noted. Embryos were collected and placed in petri dishes or in individual wells in a multi-well plate with 0.3x Danieau's medium. Embryos were maintained at 28.5°C with a 14:10 light dark cycle during the experimental period.

The transgenic line *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)*³⁵ in the AB background was used for behavioral, RNAseq, and myelin labeling experiments, while the double transgenic, *Tg(nkx2.2a:mEGFP)*,⁹⁰ *Tg(sox10:RFP)*,⁹¹ was used for time lapse microscopy experiments.

Domoic acid exposure paradigm

An initial pilot study was performed in which zebrafish embryos were exposed to DomA solutions (5- 40 µM waterborne exposures). The absence of expected acute neurotoxicity even at high concentrations (data not shown) raised questions about whether DomA was being taken up

by the embryos. Because of this, and to more precisely control the timing of exposure, we decided to use microinjection as the route of exposure.

Domoic acid was obtained in a 5 mg vial from Sigma-Aldrich, MO (D6152), and dissolved directly in the vial with diluted embryo medium (0.2x Danieau's) to obtain a 20 mM solution. This was immediately used to generate stock concentrations of 0.675 µg/µl and 1.4 µg/µl. Aliquots (10 uL each) were stored at -20°C. Experiments were completed within 16 months of generating the stock. Working solutions were prepared fresh prior to microinjection by diluting the stock to obtain the appropriate doses. Microinjection needles were created from glass capillary tubes (058 mm inner diameter; World Precision Instruments, 1B100F-4) using a pipette puller (Sutter instrument model p-30, heat 750, pull= 0). Microinjections were performed using a Narishige IM-300 microinjector. The microinjector was calibrated to deliver 0.2 nL by adjusting the time (milliseconds) and pressure.

To determine the window of susceptibility for exposure at lower doses, DomA (0.09, 0.13, 0.14, 0.18 ng nominal dose) was intravenously microinjected into the common posterior cardinal vein at different developmental stages.⁹² Controls from the same breeding cohort were injected with the saline vehicle (0.2x Danieau's). Supplemental Table 1 includes the developmental time ranges for each injection category. To perform intravenous microinjections, fish were dechorionated, anesthetized with tricaine methanesulfonate (MS222) (0.16%) then placed laterally on dishes coated with 1.5% agarose. An injection was deemed successful if there was a visible displacement of blood cells. Following injections, zebrafish were placed back in clean embryo media and monitored daily.

Assessment of gross morphological defects and acute neurological phenotypes

Subsets of fish were imaged using brightfield microscopy to visualize potential gross morphological defects. The presence or absence of the swim bladder was scored blindly and then percentage was quantified for fish exposed to DomA at different doses and during different developmental stages. Images were white balance-corrected using Adobe Photoshop.

In a subset of the experiments, fish were kept individually in 48-well plates for phenotypic observation. Any mortalities, presence or absence of convulsions, pectoral flapping, and touch responses were recorded daily from the day after exposure to 5 dpf. Larvae were considered convulsing when whole body contractions were observed. Pectoral fin flapping was scored when larvae continued to rapidly move pectoral fins even when the fish were not actively swimming or attempting to right themselves. Touch responses were assessed using a tactile stimulus produced by an ‘embryo poker’ – a piece of fishing line (0.41 mm diameter) glued to a glass pipette tip. Larvae were identified as having no touch response when they were unable to perform body bends and swim away following tactile stimulation.

Modeling the prevalence of neurotoxic phenotypes by dose, day of exposure, and day of observation.

Following daily observation, generalized estimating equations (GEE) were used to model the effects of both DomA dose (as a continuous factor) and the number of days post-exposure (categorical factor) on the presence of acute neurological phenotypes (convulsions, pectoral flapping, and the lack of touch responses) (gee(), geepack R package).⁴⁹ Observations of the same fish over multiple days were treated as repeated measures and were clustered by the “id” term. Separate GEE models were created for exposure to DomA at two developmental periods (1 and 2 dpf).

There were only single observations for fish exposed at 4 dpf (observed at 5 dpf) . To determine whether DomA dose alters the presence of neurotoxic phenotypes one day post-exposure, a generalized linear model was formulated containing the different doses as predictors, and the presence of phenotypes as the response. To account for variability amongst trials, dispersion was estimated using the quasibinomial link function rather than the binomial one.

Startle behavior set-up

The custom-built startle behavior set-up is shown in Fig 1B. The system includes a speaker (Visaton BG20-8 8" Full-Range Speaker with Whizzer Cone, #292-548) connected to an amplifier (100W TDA7498 Class-D Amplifier Board, #320-303) which serves as a source of auditory/vibrational stimuli. A hollow cylinder with a flat base was 3D printed and glued to the

center of the speaker. This served as a platform to rest the plate that contained the fish (radius= 50 mm, height = 50mm). A 16-well acrylic plate (4.83 x 4.83 cm) was then designed to contain 16 larvae individually. This plate was based on a design from Wolman et al. (2011) that was comprised of laser cut acrylic pieces that were fused together using acrylic cement (Weld-On #3; IPS).⁹⁴

The intensity and frequency of the auditory/vibrational stimuli were controlled using a pulse generator (PulsePal, Sansworks). Stimuli were coded to deliver 3 millisecond pulses of 1000 Hz frequency.

Groups of 16 larvae (7 dpf) were given 7 identical stimuli (41 dB) that were spaced 20 seconds apart to prevent habituation.⁹⁴ A high-speed video camera (Edgertronic) was set at a 10% pre-trigger rate to capture 13 frames prior to the stimulus being elicited, while recording larval movements at 1000 frames per second.

Measuring startle vibration

Vibration was measured using a 3-axis accelerometer (PCB Piezotronics, model W356B11). The output signal was first conditioned (PCB Piezotronics, Model 480B31) then passed through a dual channel analog filter (Model 3382, Krohn-Hite Corporation) using a 10 kHz low-pass cutoff frequency and 30 dB gain. Finally, the signal was collected by a data acquisition board (National Instruments Data Acquisition board, Model USB-6251). Raw voltage data were converted into acceleration units (m/s²) using manufacturer sensitivity values for each axis of the accelerometer. The Euclidian norm (vector sum) for the three acceleration signals was calculated to get the total acceleration. Individual peaks were identified, and metrics were calculated for the time window between 9 milliseconds prior to the peak to 50 ms after. The maximum value (peak) during each time window was taken as the zero to peak acceleration value for a given impulse, and this value was converted to dB using the following equation:

$$L_{z-pk} = 20 * \log_{10}(x)$$

Where L_{z-pk} is the zero-to-peak acceleration level in dB re 1 m/s², and x is the maximum acceleration level (of the Euclidian norm) over the peak analysis window.

Startle behavioral analysis

High speed videos were converted into jpegs (.mov files with a minimal resolution of 720x720, 1/1008 shutter speed and a frame rate of 1000 frames/second). To reduce the noise and tracking errors, the background was subtracted, and the image contrast was enhanced using a custom script in MATLAB. FLOTE software⁹⁵ was then used to analyze the jpegs. Quantitative attributes of the startle response measured include startle responsiveness (whether larvae responded or not), latency (delay time prior to startle), maximal bend angle, and maximal angular velocity during startle. The identities of individual larvae across the multiple stimuli were distinguished based on their position on a grid.

Statistical modeling of startle responsiveness

Every fish was given 7 replicate auditory/vibrational stimuli, spaced 20 milliseconds apart. For all instances where a fish was successfully tracked, response rates were recorded. Percent response rates for individual fish were calculated (% responsiveness = number of times the fish responded / number of successfully tracked videos with a maximum of 7 tracks per individual fish). A mixed effects logistic regression model was used to identify treatment differences in percent responsiveness, with dose as a fixed effect and the replicate stimuli as a random effect using the ‘glmer’ function of lme4 package in R.⁹⁶ A Dunnett post-hoc test was used to identify potential treatment differences in responsiveness (glht(), multcomp R package).⁹⁷

Identifying SLC versus LLC responses using mixture models

For all the fish that did respond, their startle responses were classified as either short latency c-bends (SLCs) or long latency c-bends (LLCs) based on an empirically determined latency cut-off. Latency cut-offs have been known to vary based on environmental conditions such as temperature.⁹⁵ To empirically determine the cut-offs, clustering was done using a Gaussian mixture model, which fits two Gaussian distributions, and assigns each latency data point a probability of belonging to either of the two distributions (R package, mixtools).⁹⁸ The cut-off for assigning a response as a SLC was 13 milliseconds – the latency with a greater than 50% probability of belonging to the first fitted Gaussian distribution (Supplemental Fig. 2). Startle responses that had latencies greater than 13 milliseconds were classified as LLCs.

Analysis of treatment differences in startle response kinematics

There were several instances when individual fish performed a combination of LLC and SLC responses over the 7 replicate stimuli. For fish that did respond, their startle responses were classified as either SLCs (≤ 13 milliseconds) or LLCs (> 13 milliseconds). Kinematic responses from the two types of startle responses (SLC v. LLC) were analyzed separately based on previous research that shows they are driven by different neural circuits and have distinct kinematic characteristics.^{95,99,100} Following this classification, the median response of individual fish for each startle type was then used to identify treatment-specific differences in kinematics.

We first checked for normality and variance homogeneity in the data being analyzed. We used the Bartlett test to test for homogeneity in variances (`bartlett.test()`, R), and the Shapiro-Wilk's method to test for normality (`shapiro.test()`, R). Kinematic data (bend angle, maximum angular velocity) showed departures from normality and had unequal variances. To account for this, we used nonparametric tests to determine whether fish exposed to various doses of DomA at different developmental periods had altered bend angles and maximal angular velocities.

Kinematic data from fish exposed to DomA at different development days were analyzed separately. For trials that contained a single dose of DomA, nonparametric Behrens-Fisher t-tests were used to test the alternative hypothesis that kinematics of fish exposed to DomA were different from their control counterparts (`npar.t.test()`, `nparcomp` package, R).¹⁰¹ With trials that contained multiple doses, nonparametric analyses with Dunnett-type intervals were done to compare each of the doses to the control (`nparcomp()`, `nonparam` package, R).¹⁰¹

Functions in the `nparcomp` package estimate the relative effects, which range from 0 to 1. Under the null hypothesis, the relative effect size is 0.5 – which represents a 50% probability (an equal probability) that the treated fish has a value greater than the control fish. The closer the estimated relative effect is to 1, the higher the probability that the measured kinematics in the treated group has a larger value than the control. In contrast, the closer the estimated relative effect is to 0, the higher the probability that the measured kinematic parameter in the treated group has a smaller value than the control.

Startle kinematic analysis for interaction effects between dose and day of exposure

We then directly tested whether exposures that occurred on distinct developmental days influenced startle kinematics differently – in other words, if there is an interaction between dose and day injected. To examine this, we analyzed the subset of trials that had fish that were collected from the same breeding cohort at day 0 and then exposed to DomA at different developmental days (1, 2, or 4 dpf). Aligned Ranked Transformed ANOVA tests were done to determine whether there was an interaction between dose (0 versus 0.09 ng, or in a separate analysis, 0 versus 0.13 ng DomA) and day of exposure (1, 2, or 4 dpf) on startle kinematics (art(), ARTool R package).¹⁰² Difference-of-difference contrasts were then done to determine whether day of exposure affected treatment differences in kinematics (testContrasts(), Phia R package).¹⁰³ Through this, we addressed questions such as, “is the difference in kinematics between control fish and those exposed at 2 dpf significant compared to the difference in kinematics between DomA and control fish when they are exposed at 1 or 4 dpf?”

Fluorescence microscopy

Larvae were anesthetized in tricaine methanesulfonate (MS222) (0.16%), mounted laterally, and then imaged using either widefield epifluorescence microscopy or confocal microscopy. For images collected on the confocal microscope, fish were anesthetized and mounted laterally in 1.5% low melt agarose within glass bottom microscopy dishes (Nunc Glass bottom dishes 27mm). ‘Embryo pokers’ were used to orient the embryos onto their sides. Once the embryos were oriented correctly, the agarose was allowed to harden, and the microscopy dish was flooded with MS222. Fish were then imaged using the confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM-710 and LSM-780) with the 40x water objective (Zeiss C- Apochromat, NA= 1.1). Images were taken along the anterior spinal cord in the region around the 5th and 10th somites.

For images collected on the widefield epifluorescence microscope, a subset of fish were laterally mounted using 1.5% agarose. To allow for more rapid imaging of larvae, most larvae were oriented into custom-made acrylic molds that contained narrow channels where anesthetized larvae were positioned laterally using the embryo poker. Fish were imaged using the Zeiss inverted epifluorescence microscope with either a 20x (Fluar, NA = 0.75) or 10x (Fluar, NA = 0.5) objective. Images were taken along the anterior to medial spinal cord between somites 5-15.

Analysis of the prevalence and severity of myelin phenotypes by dose and day of exposure

Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX) is a stable line in which EGFP is localized to cell membranes including myelin sheaths. We exposed *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)* fish to different doses of DomA at select developmental times and then imaged their spinal cords. Images were classified qualitatively into categories 0 through 5 based on severity in the myelin defect observed (Supplemental Fig. 4). Multinomial regression was used to model the effect of both dose and day injected on the distribution of the myelin severity phenotypes (multinom(), nnet R package).¹⁰⁴

The overall significance of the dose and development day of exposures was obtained by performing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on pairs of multinomial logistic regression models. The initial multinomial logistic regression model only included the dose of DomA as a predictor of the distribution of myelin phenotypes: $\beta_0 + \beta_{\text{dose}}$. The alternative model incorporated day of exposure: $\beta_0 + \beta_{\text{dose}} + \beta_{\text{DayExposure}}$. An ANOVA test was then used to determine whether the more complex alternative model was significantly better at capturing the data than the initial simpler one. A significant ANOVA result would determine whether day of exposure influences the distribution of the myelin phenotypes (anova(initial model, first alternative model), car package, R).¹⁰⁵

Multinomial models were constructed to identify the effects of increasing doses of DomA on the distribution of these myelin phenotypes. To accomplish this, we used imaging data from fish exposed to varying doses of DomA at 2 dpf.

Time-lapse microscopy

Embryos were exposed to DomA at 2 dpf, anesthetized, and mounted in 1.5% low melt agarose at around 2.25 dpf. Images were acquired on the LSM710 using the 20x dry (Plan-Apochromat 20x/0.8) objective. Z-stacks were acquired every 13-17 minutes over the course of 12-13 hours. For each embryo observed, maximum intensity projections of the z-stacks were then generated and compiled over time to generate the movie file (ZEN blue, ZEN black imaging software, Zeiss Microscopy).

Experimental design for RNASeq

Three individual breeding tanks were set up with two males and one female per tank. Embryos collected from each tank were split so that some were injected with DomA (0.14 ng) and others with the saline vehicle control. Embryos were exposed to either the saline vehicle or to 0.14 ng of DomA at 2 dpf (between 48.5- 51 hpf), then placed into 48-well plates for daily observation. Pools of 6 embryos from each of the three breeding sets were collected for RNAsequencing (n=3 per treatment) at 3 dpf (76 hpf). The remaining fish were used for imaging myelin at 5 dpf and for assessing startle behavior at 7 dpf (see below). At the end of the behavioral trial, a subset of the fish was snap frozen at 7 dpf (124 hpf) for RNA sequencing.

To ensure effectiveness of the exposure, a subset of exposed fish were imaged to visualize myelin structure at 5 dpf and then subjected to behavioral tests (startle response) at 7 dpf. Consistent with other experimental trials, there were differences in behavior and myelin labeling between DomA-exposed fish and controls (Supplemental Fig. 5). Fish exposed to DomA at 2 dpf had shorter bend angles and slower angular velocities relative to controls (Supplemental Fig. 5A and B). Also consistent with other experimental trials, only DomA-exposed larvae showed any visible myelin defects, with most of the fish having myelin defects that were in the second to highest severity (Category 3 = 21/ 49, Supplemental Fig. 5C). Phenotypic analysis thus validated the use of RNAseq to identify potential transcriptional changes from exposures.

RNA Isolation and sequencing

RNA was isolated using the Zymo Direct-Zol kit (Catlog # R2062) and quantified using Nanodrop spectrophotometer. RNA quality was checked using the Bioanalyzer (Agilent technologies, CA) at the Harvard Biopolymers Facility, Cambridge, MA. RNA integrity number (RIN) of the samples was 8.2 or higher. Library preparation for single stranded RNAseq was done using the Illumina TruSeq total RNA library kit. Single-end 50 base pair sequencing was done on Illumina HiSeq2000 platform. Both library preparation and sequencing was performed at the Tufts University Core Facility (Boston, MA). Raw data files were assessed for quality using FastQC.¹⁰⁶ Adapter trimming was done using Trimmomatic.¹⁰⁷ Trimmed reads were aligned to the genome (GRCz10, version 84) using STAR aligner.^{107,108} HTSeq-count was used to count the number of reads mapped to the annotated regions of the genome.¹⁰⁹ Differential gene

expression (DGE) analysis was done using Bioconductor package, edgeR, following the DGE analysis pipeline outlined by Chen et al 2016.^{110,111} Raw and processed data files were deposited in NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus database (Accession number # GSE140045).

DGE analysis involved filtering genes with read counts less than 10/n, where n is the minimal library size, and then normalizing read counts. Negative binomial models were used to account for gene-specific variability from biological and technical sources. Multi-dimensional scaling plots were used to visualize the leading fold-changes (largest 500 log₂ fold changes) between pairs of samples. False discovery rate of 5% (Benjamini-Hochberg method) was used as a statistical cutoff for identifying differentially expressed genes. Gene annotation was done using BioMart with the latest genome (GRCz11), and only annotated genes were used in pathway analysis. gProfiler was then used to identify enriched Gene Ontology (GO) terms and human phenology phenotypes.¹¹² GO terms with evidence only from *in silico* curation methods were excluded from the enrichment analysis and a statistical significance level of less than or equal to 0.05 (adjusted p-value) was used.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Experimental set-up

(A) Exposure paradigm and endpoints assessed over zebrafish development.

(B) Apparatus used to assess startle responses to A/V stimuli. A speaker with a bonded platform was sent a 3 millisecond, 1000 Hz pulse, which was then delivered to a 16-well plate. A high-speed camera captured startle responses at 1000 frames per second.

(C) Sample trace of the bend angle over time as a larvae undergoes startle. Bend angle is estimated by measuring the changes in angles between three line segments that outline the larvae.

Figure 2. Domoic acid-exposed larvae at 2 dpf are less responsive to auditory/vibrational stimuli.

Fish exposed to different doses of DomA at 1 dpf (A), 2 dpf (B), and 4 dpf (C). Ratios listed above represent the number of fish that responded 100% of the time over the total number of fish. Points represent the percent of times an individual fish that responded to replicate stimuli. Black triangles, represent the mean responsiveness of fish for each treatment. Asterisks represent statistical significance between DomA and controls (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .005$).

Figure supplement: Table 10

Figure 3. Exposure to domoic acid at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) consistently alters SLC startle

response kinematics. Fish were exposed to different doses of DomA at 1 dpf (A, D), 2 dpf (B, E), and 4 dpf (C, F). SLC startle responses were characterized by bend angle (A-C) and maximal angular velocity (D-F). Each point represents the median of up to 7 responses for an individual fish. Boxplots show the group medians, upper 75% quantiles, and lower 25% quantiles. Asterisks represent statistical significance between DomA and controls (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < .001$, *** $p < .0001$). The numbers shown above each column represents the number of trials with statistically significant treatment effects / the total number of trials conducted.

Figure supplement: Table 11, Table 13 Table 14, Table 16

Table 11, 14 and 16 contains the results from the statistical analysis for 2 dpf, 1 dpf and 4 dpf injected fish. Table 13 includes medians and interquartile ranges for 2 dpf injected fish.

Figure 4. Exposure to domoic acid at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) consistently alters LLC startle

response kinematics. Fish were exposed to different doses of DomA at 1 dpf (A, D), 2 dpf (B, E), and 4 dpf (C, F). LLC startle responses were characterized by bend angle (A-C) and maximal angular velocity (D-F). Each point represents the median of up to 7 responses for an individual fish. Boxplots show the group medians, upper 75% quantiles, and lower 25% quantiles. Asterisks represent statistical significance

between DomA and controls (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < .001$, *** $p < .0001$). The numbers shown above each column represents the number of trials with statistically significant treatment effects / the total number of trials conducted.

Figure supplement: Table 12, Table 13, Table 15, Table 17

Table 12, 15, and 17 contains the results from the statistical analysis for 2 dpf, 1 dpf and 4 dpf injected fish. Table 13 includes medians and interquartile ranges for 2 dpf injected fish.

Figure 5. Exposure to domoic acid at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) alters myelin sheaths at 5 dpf.

(A) *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)* fish were used to visualize labeled myelin sheaths. (B) Fish were exposed to DomA (0.13-0.14 ng) during development (1- 4 dpf), then imaged at 5 dpf using confocal microscopy. Arrows indicate the unusual circular membrane profiles. (C) Stacked bar plots show the distribution of the different myelin phenotypes when fish were exposed to DomA at discrete developmental times. Multiple trials were combined to calculate the % distribution per phenotype observed. (D) Representative confocal microscopy images of different myelin phenotypes that were observed. Each fish was blindly classified and assigned a category based on severity of the myelin deficit observed. Scale bar = 100 μ m.

Figure supplement: Table 18

Table 18 includes the number of trials represented along with the associated numbers of fish per trial.

Figure 6: Exposure to domoic acid between 2-2.5 dpf alters myelin sheaths at 5 dpf.

(A) *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)* fish were exposed DomA (0.09-0.18 ng) over a range of discrete developmental periods (1-4 dpf), then imaged at 5 dpf using widefield epifluorescence microscopy. Images were blindly classified into 6 categories based on severity of the observed myelin phenotype. Arrows indicate the myelinated Mauthner axon that is required for SLC startle responses.

(B) Stacked bar plots show the distribution of the different phenotypes. Multiple trials were combined to calculate the % distribution per phenotype observed. Scale bar = 50 μ m

Figure supplement: Table 19, Table 22, Table 23

Table 19 includes the number of trials represented along with the associated numbers of fish per trial.

Table 22 contains the output of the multinomial logistic regression model to assess the role of developmental day of exposure on the distribution of myelin phenotypes.

Table 23 contains the output of the multinomial logistic regression model for the influence of dose on the distribution of myelin phenotypes.

Figure 7: Myelin sheath labeling defects persist until at least 7 dpf.

Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX) fish were exposed to DomA over discrete developmental periods (1, 2 and 4 dpf), then imaged at 6 dpf (A) and 7 dpf (B) using widefield epifluorescence microscopy. Stacked bar plots show the distribution of the different phenotypes per each dose. Multiple trials were combined to calculate the % distribution per phenotype observed.

Figure supplement: Table 20, Table 21, Table 23

Table 20 and 21 contains the number of trials and associated numbers of fish per trial for 6 dpf (Figure 7A) and 7 dpf injected fish (Figure 7B). Table 23 contains the output of the multinomial logistic regression model for the influence of dose on the distribution of myelin phenotypes.

Figure 8: Domoic acid perturbs the initial formation of myelin sheaths.

(A) *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)* fish were used to visualize labeled myelin sheaths. Larvae exposed to domoic acid had fewer labeled myelin sheaths compared to controls at the earliest time point myelin sheaths are detected (3 dpf). Furthermore, DomA-exposed larvae also had aberrant circular protrusions by 3 dpf (white arrows) (control, n=5 and DomA, n=10). (B) Stills from time-lapse imaging of *Tg(nkx2.2:mEGFP)* x *Tg(sox10:mRFP)* from 2.5- 3 dpf. Diagrams above the images show the key developmental processes in the oligodendrocyte lineage during this time range (control, n=6 and DomA, n=5). Yellow arrow denotes an elongated myelin sheath, white arrows denote unusual circular myelin membranes. Scale bar = 100 μm

Figure supplement: Stills (Fig. 8B) were from a time-lapse of control (Supp. video 2) and DomA exposed (Supp. video 3) *Tg(nkx2.2:mEGFP)* x *Tg(sox10:mRFP)* transgenic fish that were imaged from 2.5- 3 dpf.

Figure 9: Transcriptional changes associated with domoic acid exposure at 2 dpf.

(A) Experimental design. Tanks of 3 adult fish of (2 females, 1 male) *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)* background were bred and exposed to DomA or vehicle at 2 dpf. Pools of 6 embryos within a given treatment from each tank were then sampled at 3 dpf and 7 dpf for RNAsequencing. For functional analyses, myelin sheath labeling was assessed at 5 dpf and startle response was assessed at 7 dpf prior to RNAsequencing.

(B) MDS plot shows clustering of samples based on overall differences in expression profiles. (C-D) Mean-difference (MD) plots compare the log fold changes of genes in DomA exposed versus control fish at the 3 and 7 dpf sampling times.

Figure supplement: Table 24, 25, 26, 27

Figure 10: Domoic acid exposure at 2 dpf leads to reduced expression of key axonal and myelin structural proteins.

(A) Schematic of the axon-myelin interface with a focus on selected myelin and axon

structural proteins that are differentially expressed in DomA exposed fish.

(B) Myelin and structural proteins that are differentially expressed with the log fold change (logFC). (-)

indicates that the gene was down-regulated in DomA-exposed fish relative to controls.

FIGURES

A.

B.

C.

Figure 1: Experimental setup

(A) Exposure paradigm and endpoints assessed over zebrafish development.

(B) Apparatus used to assess startle responses to A/V stimuli. A speaker with a bonded platform was sent a 3 millisecond, 1000 Hz pulse which was then delivered to a 16-well plate. A high speed camera captured startle responses at 1000 frames per second.

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Figure 2: Domoic acid-exposed larvae at 2 dpf are less responsive to auditory/vibrational stimuli.

(A) Fish exposed to different doses of DomA at 1 dpf, (B) 2 dpf, and (C) 4 dpf.

Ratios listed above represent the number of fish that responded 100% of the time over the total number of fish.

Points represent the percent of times an individual fish responded to replicate stimuli.

Black triangles represent the mean responsiveness of fish for each treatment.

Asterisks represent significant difference between controls and DomA treated larvae (*= p < 0.05, **= p < 0.005)

Figure supplement: Table 10

Figure 3. Exposure to domoic acid at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) consistently alters SLC startle response kinematics.

Figure 4. Exposure to domoic acid at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) consistently alters LLC startle response kinematics.

Figure 5. Exposure to domoic acid at 2 dpf (but not 1 or 4 dpf) alters myelin sheaths at 5 dpf.

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(A) *Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX)* fish were exposed DomA (0.09-0.18 ng) over a range of discrete developmental periods (1-4 dpf), then imaged at 5 dpf using widefield epifluorescence microscopy. Images were blindly classified into 6 categories based on severity of the observed myelin phenotype. Arrows indicate the myelinated Mauthner axon that is required for SLC startle responses.

(B) Stacked bar plots show the distribution of the different phenotypes. Multiple trials were combined to calculate the % distribution per phenotype observed. Scale bar = 50 μ m

Figure supplement: Table 19, Table 22, and Table 23

Supplemental Table 19 includes the number of trials represented along with the associated numbers of fish per trial. Supplemental Table 22 contains the output of the multinomial logistic regression model to assess the role of developmental day of exposure on the distribution of myelin phenotypes. Supplemental Table 23 contains the output of the multinomial logistic regression model for the influence of dose on the distribution of myelin phenotypes.

Figure 7: Myelin sheath labeling defects persist until at least 7 dpf.

Tg(mbp:EGFP-CAAX) fish were exposed to DomA over discrete developmental periods (1, 2 and 4 dpf), then imaged at 6 dpf (**A**) and 7 dpf (**B**) using widefield epifluorescence microscopy. Stacked bar plots show the distribution of the different phenotypes per each dose. Multiple trials were combined to calculate the % distribution per phenotype observed.

Figure supplement: Table 20, Table 21, Table 23

Table 20 and 21 contains the number of trials and associated numbers of fish per trial for 6 dpf (Fig. 7A) and 7 dpf injected fish (Fig. 7B).

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(B) Stills from time-lapse imaging of *Tg(nkx2.2a:mEGFP)* x *Tg(sox10:mRFP)* from 2.5- 3 dpf. Diagrams above the images show the key developmental processes in the oligodendrocyte lineage during this time period (control, n=5 and DomA, n=6). Yellow arrow denotes an elongated myelin sheath. White arrows denote unusual circular myelin membranes. Scale bar = 100 μ m.

Figure supplement: Stills (Fig. 8B) were from a time-lapse of control (Supp. video 2) and DomA exposed (Supp. video 3) *Tg(nkx2.2:mEGFP)* x *Tg(sox10:mRFP)* transgenic fish that were imaged from 2.5- 3 dpf.

Figure 9: Transcriptional changes associated with domoic acid exposure at 2 dpf.

A.

B.

Myelin structural proteins

gene name	logFC
<i>mpz</i>	-0.75
<i>mbpa</i>	-0.51

Axonal structural proteins

gene name	logFC
<i>nefla</i>	-1.33
<i>neflb</i>	-0.94
<i>nefma</i>	-0.80
<i>nefmb</i>	-1.08

Figure 10: Domoic acid exposure at 2 dpf leads to reduced expression of key axonal and myelin structural proteins by 3 dpf.

(A) Schematic of the axon-myelin interface with a focus on selected myelin and axon structural proteins that are differentially expressed in DomA exposed fish.

(B) Myelin and structural proteins that are differentially expressed with the log fold change (logFC). (-) indicates that the gene was downregulated in DomA-exposed fish relative to controls.

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