



**HAL**  
open science

# Plasticity of the dopaminergic phenotype and of locomotion in larval zebrafish induced by changes in brain excitability during the embryonic period

Sandrine Bataille, Hadrien Jalaber, Ingrid Colin, Damien Remy, Pierre Affaticati, Cynthia Froc, Philippe Vernier, Michaël Demarque

## ► To cite this version:

Sandrine Bataille, Hadrien Jalaber, Ingrid Colin, Damien Remy, Pierre Affaticati, et al.. Plasticity of the dopaminergic phenotype and of locomotion in larval zebrafish induced by changes in brain excitability during the embryonic period. 2021. hal-03478859

**HAL Id: hal-03478859**

**<https://cnrs.hal.science/hal-03478859>**

Preprint submitted on 14 Dec 2021

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License

1 ∴ *Title (50 w)*

2 **Plasticity of the dopaminergic phenotype and of locomotion in**  
3 **larval zebrafish induced by changes in brain excitability during**  
4 **the embryonic period.**

5  
6 *Embryonic excitability modulates differentiation*

7 Sandrine Bataille\*<sup>1</sup>, Hadrien Jalaber\*<sup>1</sup>, Ingrid Colin\*<sup>1</sup>, Damien Remy<sup>1</sup>, Pierre Affaticati<sup>2</sup>,  
8 Cynthia Froc<sup>1</sup>, Philippe Vernier<sup>1</sup> and Michaël Demarque\*\*<sup>1</sup>.

9 1. Paris Saclay Institute of Neuroscience, (UMR9197) CNRS and Université Paris-  
10 Saclay; Avenue de la Terrasse, 91190 Gif-sur-Yvette, France

11 2. TEFOR Paris-Saclay, CNRS UMS2010 / INRAE UMS1451, Université Paris-Saclay,  
12 Avenue de la Terrasse, 91190 Gif-sur-Yvette, France

13 \*authors contributed equally

14 \*\*Corresponding author

15 ∴ *Corresponding author email address: michael.demarque@cnrns.fr*

16 ∴ *Number of pages: 39*

17 ∴ *Number of figures, tables, multimedia, and 3D models (separately): 6/0/0/0*

18 ∴ *Number of words for abstract, introduction, and discussion: 233/646/1261*

19 ∴ *Conflict of interest statement:* The authors declare no competing financial interests.

20 ∴ *Acknowledgments:* This work was funded by the French National Research Agency  
21 (ANR project “PallEnody”) and the Fondation pour la Médicale Recherche, FRM (“team  
22 FRM”). The authors thank Kei Yamamoto for scientific inputs, TEFOR Paris Saclay  
23 (TPS) for technical support.

24 **ABSTRACT (233/250 w):**

25 During the embryonic period, neuronal communication starts before the establishment  
26 of the synapses with forms of neuronal excitability, called here Embryonic Neuronal  
27 Excitability (ENE). ENE has been shown to modulate the correct unfolding of  
28 development transcriptional programs but the global consequences for the developing  
29 organisms are not all understood. Here we monitored calcium transients in zebrafish  
30 embryos as a proxy for ENE to assess the efficacy of transient pharmacological  
31 treatments able to either increase or decrease ENE. Increasing or decreasing ENE for  
32 24 hour at 2 days post fertilization (dpf) promoted respectively an increase or decrease  
33 in the post-mitotic differentiation of the dopamine (DA) neurons in the telencephalon  
34 and in the olfactory bulb of zebrafish larvæ at 6 dpf. This plasticity of dopaminergic  
35 specification occurs within a stable population of vMAT2 immuno-reactive cells, hence  
36 identifying an unanticipated biological marker for this pool of reserve cells, that can be  
37 recruited through ENE.

38 Modulating ENE also affected locomotion several days after the end of the treatments.  
39 In particular, the increase of ENE from 2 to 3 dpf promoted an hyperlocomotion in  
40 6 dpf zebrafish larvæ, reminiscent of endophenotypes reported for Attention Deficit  
41 with Hyperactivity Disorders and schizophrenia in zebrafish. These results provide a  
42 convenient framework to identify environmental factors that could disturb ENE as well  
43 as to study the molecular mechanisms linking ENE to the neurotransmitters  
44 specification, with clinical relevance for the pathogenesis of neurodevelopmental  
45 disorders.

## 46 **Significance Statement (109/ 120 w):**

47 - Spontaneous calcium spikes, used as a proxy for Embryonic Neuronal Excitability  
48 (ENE), are detected in the forebrain of embryonic zebrafish.

49 - Transients pharmacological treatments applied by balneation could be used to  
50 increase or decrease ENE.

51 - The post-mitotic differentiation of the dopaminergic phenotype is modulated by ENE  
52 in the zebrafish forebrain.

53 - The plasticity of the dopaminergic specification occurs within a reserve pool of  
54 vMAT2 immuno-reactive cells.

55 - Transient increase of ENE at the end of the embryonic period induces a  
56 hyperlocomotion, a phenotype associated with ADHD and schizophrenia in this model.

57 - Our results open clinically relevant perspectives to study the pathogenesis of  
58 neurodevelopmental disorders in zebrafish.

## 59 **Introduction (646/650 w)**

60 During brain development, specific molecular components of the synaptic neuronal  
61 communication such as ion channels, neurotransmitters and neurotransmitter  
62 receptors are expressed and functional before synapse formation (Spitzer et al., 2002).  
63 They contribute to immature forms of cellular excitability and intercellular  
64 communications we propose to refer to as Embryonic Neuronal Excitability (ENE).  
65 There is for instance a paracrine communication mediated by activation of receptors  
66 by endogenous neurotransmitters, GABA and glutamate, in the neonatal rat  
67 hippocampus, or glycine in the mouse spinal cord (Demarque et al., 2002; Owens &  
68 Kriegstein, 2002; Scain et al., 2010). Acute changes of calcium concentration have  
69 also been described, including filopodial or growth cone transients, and calcium spikes

70 in differentiating neurons (Gomez & Spitzer, 1999; Gomez et al., 2001; Borodinsky et  
71 al., 2004). Calcium spikes are sporadic, long lasting global increase of intracellular  
72 concentration of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  that occurs during restricted developmental windows called  
73 “critical periods”. They have been identified in the developing brain of several  
74 vertebrate species (Owens & Kriegstein, 1998; Borodinsky et al., 2004; Crepel et al.,  
75 2007; Blankenship & Feller, 2010; Demarque & Spitzer, 2010; Warp et al., 2012;  
76 Plazas et al., 2013). Quantification of calcium spikes by calcium imaging can be used  
77 as proxy for ENE. Changes in the incidence and frequency of calcium spikes modulate  
78 the specification of the neurotransmitter phenotype in neurons, as it is the case for  
79 dopamine (DA), in several cell populations of the xenopus and mouse brain, with  
80 consequences on several behaviors (Dulcis & Spitzer, 2008; Dulcis et al., 2013, 2017).

81 DA is an evolutionary conserved monoamine involved in the neuromodulation of  
82 numerous brain functions in vertebrates, including motivational processes, executive  
83 functions and motor control (Klein et al., 2019). Accordingly, alterations of the  
84 differentiation and function of the neurons synthesizing DA contribute to the  
85 pathogenesis of several brain disease with a neurodevelopmental origin, such as  
86 Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and schizophrenia (SZ) (Lange et al.,  
87 2012; Murray et al., 2017).

88 Further addressing the complex molecular and cellular mechanisms linking  
89 developmental excitability, dopaminergic differentiation and behavioral outputs  
90 requires an *in vivo* approach in a model accessible, genetically amenable and with  
91 possible parallels with the human situations. The developing zebrafish *Brachydanio*  
92 *rerio* fits with these needs. The development of the embryos is external, which allows  
93 inducing perturbations of ENE at stages that would be *in utero* in mammalian models.  
94 The embryos are relatively small and transparent, simplifying high-resolution imaging

95 of the brain in live or fixed preparations. Despite difference in the brain organization,  
96 notably a pallium very different from the 6-layered cortex of mammals, the main  
97 neuronal systems of vertebrates are present in zebrafish and respond to psychoactive  
98 drugs (Gawel et al., 2019). In addition, the monoaminergic system has been  
99 extensively studied in zebrafish (Schweitzer & Driever, 2009; Schweitzer et al., 2012).  
100 In vertebrates, DA modulates executive functions, such as working memory and  
101 decision making, through innervation of specific regions of the telencephalon. In the  
102 zebrafish brain, most DA neurons innervating the telencephalon have their cell bodies  
103 located within the telencephalon itself (TelDA cells) (Tay et al., 2011; Yamamoto et al.,  
104 2011). To the best of our knowledge, there is no evidence for a plasticity of the  
105 neurotransmitter phenotype in these cells.

106 To perturb ENE in conditions close to physiological exposure and ecotoxicology,  
107 we used pharmacological treatments by balneation from 48 to 72 hours post  
108 fertilization (hpf). We then analyzed the consequences of these transient  
109 pharmacological treatments a few days later, between 6 and 7 dpf. We report  
110 quantifiable changes in the specification of the dopaminergic phenotype in TelDA  
111 neurons. We also report changes for high-speed swimming episodes. These results  
112 suggest a role of ENE on the specification of the dopaminergic phenotype and motor  
113 control in the zebrafish. They also open important perspectives for this model to  
114 decipher the chain of events leading from environmental factors to the pathogenesis  
115 of disorders such as schizophrenia and ADHD.

116

## 117 **Materials and Methods**

### 118 **Fish strains**

119 All experiments were carried out in accordance with animal care guidelines  
120 provided by the French ethical committee and under the supervision of authorized  
121 investigators.

122 Zebrafish were raised according to standards procedures. Briefly, for breeding,  
123 males and females zebrafish were placed overnight, in different compartments of a  
124 tank with a grid at the bottom that allows the eggs to fall through. The next morning the  
125 separation was removed and after few minutes, the eggs were collected, rinsed and  
126 placed in a petri dish containing embryo medium (EM). Embryos were kept at  
127 28 degrees, then staged as hours post fertilization according to specific criteria. The  
128 number of animal used for each experiments is indicated in the corresponding figure  
129 legends.

### 130 **Pharmacological treatments**

131 Pharmacological compound, veratridine (10  $\mu$ M), TTX (2  $\mu$ M),  $\omega$  conotoxin  
132 (0.08  $\mu$ M), nifedipine (0.4  $\mu$ M) and flunarizine (2  $\mu$ M) were purchased from R&D  
133 System (UK) and prepared in water except veratridine which required dimethyl  
134 sulfoxide (DMSO) for dissolution and flunarizine that requires ethanol for dissolution.  
135 Sham control were performed using the same concentration of DMSO in EM without  
136 the drug to rule out an effect of the detergent itself. Specific period and duration of  
137 applications are indicated in the corresponding figure legends. All pharmacological  
138 treatments were performed by balneation followed by three washes in EM. Embryos  
139 were randomly distributed in wells (30 embryos per well) of a 6-well plate containing  
140 5 mL of solution (EM+DMSO or EM+drug). Embryos exposed to drugs or the sham  
141 control solution were observed for morphological abnormalities every day until 5 dpf.

142 Malformations (e.g. spinal curvature, cardiac edema) were considered as experimental  
143 end-points and when detected the corresponding animals were excluded from the  
144 study.

### 145 **Calcium imaging**

146 At 24 hpf embryos of the (Hsp70:GAI4 x UAS:GCaMP6f;cry:mCherry) line were  
147 exposed to a 38°C temperature for 1.5 hour. Upon heat shock activation, GCaMP6f is  
148 expressed in all the cells of the animals.

149 At 2-3 dpf the embryos were then individually embedded in low melting agarose,  
150 ventral side up for imaging.

151 30 min time lapse series were acquired at 1 Hz, at a single focal plane, on an  
152 Olympus BX60 microscope (Olympus corporation, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a  
153 40x 0.6N water immersion objective. A non-laser spinning disk system (DSD2, ANDOR  
154 Technology, Oxford, UK) was used for illumination and image acquisition. Images were  
155 open in Fiji and analyzed using Multi Measure (W. Rasband, B. Dougherty), Measure  
156 Stack (Optinav, Redmond, WA), and custom Image J plugins. Regions of interest  
157 (ROIs) were drawn manually over individual cell bodies. Movements of the preparation  
158 in the X/Y axis were corrected using the plugin Measure Stack. Average gray level  
159 from pixels in ROIs was measured over time. Spikes were defined as increase of  
160 fluorescence higher than 2 times the standard deviation of the baseline. The duration  
161 of spikes was calculated as the width at half-maximum. Incidence was scored as the  
162 number of cells generating transients divided by the estimated total number of cells in  
163 the imaged field and was expressed as a percentage. Frequency was calculated as  
164 the total number of transients in a given cell divided by the total acquisition time and  
165 was expressed as spikes per hour.

## 166 **Immunohistochemistry**

### 167 *Tissue preparations*

168 6-7 dpf zebrafish larvæ were deeply anesthetized using 0.2% Ethyl3-  
169 amniobenzoate methanesulfonate (MS222; Sigma-Aldrich) diluted in EM, then they  
170 were fixed in ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; Electron Microscopy Sciences) in  
171 1X phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Fisher Scientific) containing 0.1% Tween 20 %  
172 (PBST) overnight at 4 °C. Samples were dehydrated and stored in MeOH at -20°C.

### 173 *Immunofluorescence*

174 Immunofluorescence was performed in 2 mL microtubes. Unless specified  
175 otherwise in the protocol, incubations were performed at room temperature (RT), and  
176 thorough PBST washes were performed between each steps. The samples were first  
177 incubated in 3% Hydrogen Peroxide Solution (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) in Ethanol 100% (EtOH) for  
178 30 minutes, to deactivate endogenous peroxidases. They were then successively  
179 incubated in EtOH:Xylen 1:1 without agitation for 1 hour and, at -20 °C, in  
180 EtOH:Aceton 1:2 without agitation for 20 minutes. The washes were performed  
181 between these steps were performed in EtOH. After the final wash, samples were  
182 rehydrated in PBST.

183 In order to unmask the antigens, samples were incubated in PBST:Tris 150 mM  
184 pH9 for 10 minutes, then in Tris 150 mM pH9 at RT for 10 minutes and at 70 °C for  
185 30 minutes. After PBST washes, the samples were incubated in a blocking buffer  
186 (10% normal goat serum (NGS), 1% triton X-100, 1% tween-20, 1% DMSO,  
187 1% Bovin Serum Albumin (BSA) in PBS 1X) for 3 hours.

188 Two protocols were used for primary antibody staining. For the TH antibody, the  
189 samples were incubated with the first primary antibody (mouse anti-TH, 1:250) in a  
190 staining solution (1% NGS, 1% triton X-100, 1% DMSO, 1% BSA, 0,05% azide sodium

191 in PBST) at 4°C for 7-10 days, under gentle agitation. The samples were then  
192 incubated in a blocking buffer DAB (4% NGS, 0,3% triton X-100, 0,5% DMSO in PBST)  
193 for 1 hour at RT and incubated with a first secondary antibody (anti-mouse biotinylated,  
194 1:200) in a secondary staining buffer (4%NGS, 0,1% triton X-100 in PBST) for 2,5 days  
195 at 4°C under gentle agitation.

196 For the revelation, we used the Vectastain ABC kit (Vector ®).Briefly, a AB mix  
197 was prepare by adding 10 µl of solution A and 10 µl of solution B in 1mL PBST/1%  
198 Triton-X100. One hour after the preparation, the samples were incubated in the AB mix  
199 for 1 hour. Samples were then incubated in Tyramid-TAMRA (1:200 in PBST) for  
200 20 minutes, then 0,012% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was added directly in the solution and the samples  
201 were incubated for an additional 50 minutes.

202 Before a second primary antibody incubation, the samples underwent a step of fixation  
203 in PFA 4% for 2 hours at RT and washed overnight in PBST.

204 For the other primary antibodies (rabbit anti-caspase3, 1:500 or chicken anti-GFP,  
205 1:500), the samples were incubated in the blocking buffer (1 hour when following a TH  
206 staining, 3 hours otherwise), then they were incubated with the primary antibody in a  
207 staining solution at 4 °C for 3-4 days, under gentle agitation. After washes, the samples  
208 were incubated with the second secondary antibody (goat anti-chicken Alexa Fluor  
209 488, 1:500) and DAPI 1X in PBST at 4 °C for 2,5 days under gentle agitation. Samples  
210 were then washed three times in PBST and left overnight in PBST. For observation,  
211 the brain were dissected and mounted between slides and coverslides in Vectashield  
212 solution (Vector®).

## 213 *Image acquisition*

214 A Leica TCS SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope with a Leica HCTL Apo  
215  $\times 40/1.1$  w objective was used to image the specimens.

216 Fluorescence signal was detected through laser excitation of fluorophores at 405, 488,  
217 552, or 638 nm and detection was performed by two internal photomultipliers. Steps in  
218 the Z-axis were fixed at 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . Acquired images were adjusted for brightness and  
219 contrast using ImageJ/FIJI software.

## 220 *Quantification of immuno-reactive cells*

221 The TH- and GFP-IR cells were counted manually from z-stacks of confocal  
222 images using the ImageJ cell counter plugin.

## 223 **Spontaneous locomotion assays**

224 Individual larvæ were placed in a well of a 24 well plate with 2 mL EM 2 hours  
225 before recordings for habituation. The plate is then placed in a Zebrabox (Viewpoint,  
226 Lyon, France) for 10 minutes recording sessions. Locomotor activity was recorded  
227 using ZebraLab software (Videotrack; ViewPoint Life Sciences, France). After a first  
228 session without threshold for 24 untreated larvæ the average speed ( $av\_sp$ ) of the  
229 batch was extracted from the data. For subsequent sessions, two threshold were  
230 applied. Swim bouts with a speed below half the average speed ( $av\_sp/2$ ) were  
231 considered as inactivity, episodes with a speed over twice the average speed  
232 ( $av\_sp*2$ ) were considered as fast episode or burst and episodes with a speed  
233 between the two threshold were considered as cruises episodes or normal swim.

234 For each sessions, each animal and each category of episodes (inactivity, cruises  
235 episodes and bursts episodes), 4 parameters are extracted from the recordings: the

236 number of episodes, the total distance covered, the duration of activity, and the  
237 average speed.

## 238 **Experimental design**

### 239 **Statistical analyses**

240 Results are shown as means  $\pm$  SEM. Means comparisons were performed using  
241 the appropriate non parametric statistical tests (ANVOA, Mann Whitney U test or  
242 Kruskal-Wallis test depending on the experimental conditions).  $P < 0.05$  was  
243 considered statistically significant and noted as follow:  $P < 0.05$  (\*),  $P < 0.01$  (\*\*),  
244  $P < 0.001$  (\*\*\*).

245 For percentages, we used the 95% confidence interval defined as  
246  $=1.96 * \text{squareroot}((x*(1-x)/n))$ , n being the number of independent samples and x being  
247 the % of change observed.

248 All statistical tests were performed using the online software Brightstat and R.

## 249 **Results**

### 250 **Presence of calcium spikes in the brain of zebrafish embryo.**

251 To study Embryonic Neuronal Excitability (ENE) in the embryonic zebrafish brain,  
252 we recorded calcium spikes as a proxy. To follow the dynamics of intracellular calcium  
253 concentration we used the (Hsp70:GAI4 x UAS:GCaMP6f;cry:mCherry) transgenic  
254 line, in which the genetically encoded calcium reporter GCamp is expressed upon heat  
255 shock activation (see Materials and Methods). To monitor changes in fluorescence  
256 over time, we performed time-lapse imaging of the anterior most part of the brain of 2-  
257 3 dpf zebrafish embryos for 30 minutes sessions.

258 Spontaneous changes in fluorescence were detected in forebrain cells, likely  
259 including presumptive dopaminergic cells in the telencephalon and the OB (Figure 1A).  
260 We analyzed the evolution of the fluorescence from selected regions of interest  
261 corresponding to individual cell bodies (Figure 1B and Materials and methods). The  
262 average frequency of the recorded Ca<sup>2+</sup> spikes was 6.6±5.4 spikes.h<sup>-1</sup>; the average  
263 incidence of these events was 45.2±9.7%; these events had a mean duration of  
264 3.3±1.6 s (n= 28 spikes from 5 independent preparations Figure 1C, blue boxplots).  
265 These parameters are in the range of what has been reported in the zebrafish spinal  
266 cord, confirming that the duration of Ca<sup>2+</sup> spikes is shorter in zebrafish than in xenopus  
267 (Dulcis & Spitzer, 2008; Warp et al., 2012; Plazas et al., 2013).

#### 268 **Global pharmacological modifications of calcium spikes dynamics**

269 In order to assess the effects of global manipulations of ENE, we applied  
270 pharmacological compounds directly in the embryo medium. The treatments were  
271 performed during the last day of embryonic development (48-72 hpf) to reduce the  
272 effects on early developmental steps such as neurulation and proliferation. These  
273 drugs were already used in *Xenopus* for similar purposes (Borodinsky et al., 2004). To  
274 increase calcium spiking we used veratridine (10 µM), which blocks the inactivation of  
275 voltage-dependent sodium channels. To decrease calcium spiking, we used a cocktail  
276 containing TTX (2 µM), ω-Conotoxin (0.08 µM), Nifedipine (0.4 µM) and Flunarizine  
277 (2 µM) targeting respectively voltage-dependent sodium channels; N, L and T subtypes  
278 of voltage dependent calcium channels (we refer to this cocktail as TCNF based on  
279 the initials of its 4 components).

280 We performed time-lapse recordings of the (Hsp70:GAI4 x  
281 UAS:GCaMP6f;cry:mCherry) transgenic line two to ten hours after the beginning of the  
282 treatments.

283        Following either veratridine treatment (n=26 spikes from 4 independent  
284        preparations) or TCNF treatment (n=15 from 4 independent preparations), individual  
285        events had a similar duration as in control (Kruskal-Wallis test,  $p=0.538$ ; Figure 1C).  
286        Following veratridine treatments, the average frequency of calcium spikes was  
287        increased ( $+39.3\pm 16\%$ , n=36 cells from 4 independent preparations,  $p=0.206$   
288        bonferroni post-hoc test) as well as the average incidence of calcium transients  
289        ( $29.9\pm 45\%$  n=4 independent preparations,  $p<0.05$  conover posthoc comparisons;  
290        Figure 1C, green boxplots).

291        Following TCNF treatments, the average frequency of calcium spikes was  
292        decreased ( $-29\pm 22\%$ , n=17 cells from 4 independent preparations,  $p=0.812$   
293        bonferroni post-hoc test) as well as the average incidence ( $-44\pm 48\%$  n=4  
294        independent preparations,  $p<0.01$  Kruskal-Wallis paired comparisons)(Figure 1C, red  
295        boxplots).

296        These results demonstrate that balneation treatments are able to change the  
297        incidence and frequency of spontaneous calcium spikes in the embryonic zebrafish  
298        forebrain. Based on these results, we refer to veratridine treatment as “increase of  
299        ENE”, and to TCNF treatment as “decrease of ENE”, in the following sections of the  
300        manuscript.

### 301        **Dopaminergic cells in the telencephalon and the olfactory bulb (OB) in the** 302        **zebrafish brain at larval stages.**

303        To identify dopaminergic neurons in the telencephalon and the OB, we used two  
304        markers of the catecholaminergic phenotype, immune-labeled tyrosine hydroxylase 1  
305        (TH1), the rate limiting enzyme for dopamine synthesis and the vesicular monoamines  
306        transporter (vMAT2) combined to anatomical landmarks such as the position of brain

307 ventricles or large fibers bundles. Indeed, in zebrafish, like in mammals, noradrenaline-  
308 containing neuronal soma are not detected in the forebrain anterior to the midbrain-  
309 hindbrain boundary, rather, they are restricted to neuronal subpopulations located in  
310 the nucleus locus coeruleus, the medulla oblongata and the area postrema (Ma,  
311 1994a; b, 1997, 2003). Thus, all the catecholaminergic neurons located in front of the  
312 midbrain-hindbrain boundary are likely to be dopamine neurons.

313 To localize these markers we performed double wholemount  
314 immunohistochemistry on 6-7 dpf larvæ of the Tg(Et.vMAT2:eGFP) transgenic line.  
315 We used an anti-GFP antibody to amplify the endogenous GFP signal to visualize cells  
316 expressing vMAT2 (referred to as vMAT2+ cells in the remaining of the manuscript)  
317 and an anti-TH antibody to identify TH1 cells (referred to as TH1+ cells in the remaining  
318 of the manuscript). This anti-TH antibody is specific to TH1 and does not have affinity  
319 for TH2 (Yamamoto et al., 2011).

320 In control conditions, in the telencephalon, we detected  $15.1 \pm 3.1$  TH1+ cells  
321 ( $n = 39$  samples from 6 independent experiments; Figure 2A, left column, Figure 2B,  
322 blue boxplot). The cell bodies of these neurons were distributed bilaterally along the  
323 midline, and relatively close to it. The major pattern of fibers distribution we could detect  
324 was that of fibers projecting first ventrally and then laterally joining the wide  
325 dopaminergic lateral longitudinal tracts.

326 An average of  $63.4 \pm 6.7$  vMAT2+ cells was also detected in this region ( $n = 39$   
327 samples from 6 independent experiments; Figure 2A, blue boxed column, Figure 2 C  
328 blue boxplot). The overall disposition of the cell bodies and projections was the same  
329 as for TH+ cells.

330 In control conditions, in the OB,  $46.4 \pm 8.1$  vMAT2<sup>+</sup> cells and  $30 \pm 2.6$  TH1<sup>+</sup> cells  
331 were detected (n= 39 samples from 6 independent experiments; Figure 2A, blue boxed  
332 column and Figure 2D and 2E, blue boxplot). The cell bodies of these OB TH1<sup>+</sup>  
333 neurons were distributed at the anterior end of the forebrain and they were initially  
334 projecting in an anterior direction before rapidly branching in multiple directions.

335 In both regions, all TH1<sup>+</sup> cells were also vMAT2<sup>+</sup> while some vMAT2<sup>+</sup> cells were  
336 TH1<sup>-</sup>. In the telencephalon, vMAT2<sup>+</sup>/TH1<sup>-</sup> cell bodies were mostly located at the  
337 anterior end of the cluster of vMAT2<sup>+</sup>/TH1<sup>+</sup> cells. Such vMAT2<sup>+</sup>/TH<sup>-</sup> cells are also  
338 detected in the telencephalon of adult zebrafish (Yamamoto et al., 2011). Thus, in the  
339 developing zebrafish telencephalon, the population of vMAT2<sup>+</sup> cells slightly exceeds  
340 that of TH1-expressing cells.

#### 341 **Effects of pharmacological treatments on the expression of dopaminergic** 342 **markers in the telencephalon and the OB.**

343 To assess the effects of ENE on the expression of telencephalic dopaminergic  
344 markers at larval stages, we applied pharmacological treatments by balneation from  
345 48 to 72 hpf as described above and performed whole-mount immunohistochemistry  
346 on larvæ fixed at 6-7 dpf.

347 Increasing the excitability in the zebrafish brain also increased the number of TH1<sup>+</sup>  
348 cells both in the telencephalon and in the OB ( $+28.6 \pm 15\%$ ,  $p < 0.05$  and  $+45.9 \pm 17\%$   
349  $p < 0.001$  respectively, n=35 samples from 6 independent experiments, conover  
350 posthoc comparisons, Figure 2A, green boxed column; Figure 2B and 2D, green  
351 boxplots). Meanwhile, the number of vMAT2 cells did not change significantly in either  
352 regions ( $p = 0.08$  for the telencephalon,  $p = 0.659$  for the OB, Kruskal wallis test; n=16  
353 samples from 6 independent experiments; Figure 2A, green boxed column, Figure  
354 2C,E, green boxplots).

355        Following decreased excitability, the number of TH1+ cells diminished in the  
356 telencephalon but not in the OB (-14.5+/-9.6% and -0.7+/-7.3% respectively, n=49  
357 samples from 6 independent experiments;  $p < 0.001$  and  $p > 0.05$  respectively, conover  
358 posthoc comparisons, Figure 2A, red boxed column, Figure 2B and 2D, red boxplot).  
359 Meanwhile, the number of vMAT2 cells did not change significantly in either regions  
360 (Kruskal wallis test:  $p = 0.08$  for the OB,  $p = 0.659$  for the OB; n=24 from 6 independent  
361 experiments; Figure 2A, red boxed column and Figure 2C and 2E, red boxplots). In  
362 both experimental situations, that is, after increasing or decreasing ENE, all the TH1+  
363 cells also exhibited vMAT2 labelling. Hence, according to our identification criteria  
364 (anatomical position combined to the expression of TH and vMAT2), an increase of  
365 embryonic electrical activity increases the number of TeIDA cells, while a decrease of  
366 embryonic electrical activity decreases the number of TeIDA cells.

367        On the other hand, the number of vMAT2+ cells was relatively stable in comparison  
368 to TH1+ cells following the perturbation of activity (only decreasing in the telencephalon  
369 following a decrease of activity). The stability of the number of vMAT2+ cells and the  
370 lower proportion of vMAT2+/TH- cells following increase of ENE suggest that the cells  
371 that express a complete dopaminergic phenotype in this condition are recruited among  
372 a population of vMAT2+/TH- cells. Hence vMAT2+/TH- cells would behave as a reserve  
373 pool for dopaminergic cells (Dulcis & Spitzer, 2012). A similar conclusion could also  
374 apply to the OB, despite the fact that the number of TH1+ cells is not statistically  
375 diminished following decreased activity in this region. This unexpected result could  
376 account for a number of TH1+ cells already set at a minimum in basal conditions in the  
377 OB.

### 378 **Modifications of ENE do not have an effect on cell death in the forebrain**

379        To check whether increase or decrease of ENE could change cell survival, we

380 counted the number of cells IR for the apoptosis marker caspase-3 at 6-7 dpf. The  
381 number of caspase-3+ cells was stable following the increase or the decrease of ENE,  
382 strengthening the hypothesis that the changes observed in the number of TH1+ cells  
383 is indeed linked to changes in specification rather than changes in cell death (Figure 3).

#### 384 **Maturation of spontaneous swimming in zebrafish larvæ**

385 In order to analyze the consequence of changes in ENE on motor behaviors in  
386 zebrafish larvæ, we recorded swimming episodes, as described in Materials and  
387 Methods. During locomotion, zebrafish larvæ display successive turn and swim bouts  
388 called episodes, interleaved with resting periods. This behavior can be analyzed by  
389 semi-automated methods, making possible to distinguish between episodes based on  
390 the average swim speed. Swimming episodes with a speed close to the overall average  
391 speed of all recorded episodes are considered as cruises episodes or normal swim.  
392 Episodes with a speed higher than twice the overall average speed of all recorded  
393 swim episodes, are considered as fast episodes or bursts.

394 We first studied the dynamic of maturation of larval cruises and bursts episodes in  
395 control conditions. We tracked the position of individual larvæ during 3 rounds of  
396 10 minutes recordings at 4, 5, 6 and 7 dpf. The recorded parameters reflected a  
397 gradual increase of spontaneous locomotion from 4 to 6 dpf and a relative stability  
398 between 6 and 7 dpf. From 4 to 6 dpf, the number of episodes, the duration of swimming  
399 and distance covered increases, both for cruises and bursts episodes ( $p < 0.01$  for each  
400 parameters, Bonferroni post-hoc test,  $n=48$  individuals for each stages; Figure 4,  
401 lighter blue boxplots). In contrast, between 6 and 7 dpf, the recorded parameters were  
402 stable both for cruises and bursts episodes ( $p=0.16$ , 1 and 1 respectively; Figure 4,  
403 darker blue boxplots). Based on these results, we concluded that we could set our  
404 analysis window between 6 and 7 dpf.

405 **Effects of pharmacological treatments on the locomotion of 6-7 dpf larvæ.**

406 We next studied the effect of transient increase and decrease of ENE during the  
407 embryonic period on locomotion recorded in larval zebrafish (Figure 5A). We recorded  
408 spontaneous locomotion of 6-7 dpf zebrafish larvæ over 3 consecutive 10 minutes  
409 sessions in 3 conditions: control, increased ENE, and decreased ENE. A  
410 representative example of traces obtained for 24 well plates for each conditions is  
411 shown in Figure 5B. For cruises and bursts episodes, the four parameters measured  
412 were the number of swim bouts, the total duration of swim, the total distance covered,  
413 the average speed of swim (Figure 5 C-J).

414 For cruises episodes, in control conditions, the four measured parameters were  
415 the number of swim bouts:  $1267.2 \pm 292.3$ , total duration:  $306.5 \pm 58.6$  s, total distance  
416 covered:  $767.5 \pm 285.1$  mm and average speed:  $2.5 \pm 0.7$  mm.s<sup>-1</sup> (n=318 larvæ from  
417 15 independent experiments, Figure 5B-F, blue boxplots).

418 The number of swim bouts was decreased following both the increase and the  
419 decrease of ENE ( $-5.8 \pm 2.3\%$  ;  $-22 \pm 5\%$  respectively, Figure 5C). The three other  
420 parameters increased either after an increase or a decrease of ENE (the total duration:  
421  $+4.6 \pm 2.1\%$  ;  $+35.4 \pm 5.8\%$ ; the total distance covered:  $+38.3 \pm 4.9\%$  ;  $+14.7 \pm 4.3\%$   
422 and average speed:  $+34.6 \pm 4.8\%$  ;  $+22.2 \pm 5\%$  respectively,  $p < 0.01$  conover posthoc  
423 comparisons; n>262 larvæ from 15 independent experiments; Figure 5D-F).

424 For bursts episodes, in control conditions, the 4 parameters studied were the  
425 number of swim bouts:  $301 \pm 227.6$ , the total duration:  $42 \pm 38.4$  s, the total distance  
426 covered:  $434.2 \pm 492.6$  mm and the average speed of swim:  $9.7 \pm 2.8$  mm.s<sup>-1</sup>  
427 (Figure 5 G-J, blue boxplots).

428 Three of these parameters changed according to the treatments. They increased  
429 following an increase of ENE and decreased following a decrease of ENE (number of  
430 swim bouts: +24.6+/-4%;-54.8+/-6%; total duration: +37.8+/-4.8%;-58+/-6%; total  
431 distance covered: +58.8+/-5%;-61.6+/-5.9% respectively, % of change followed by the  
432 confidence interval, n>262 larvæ from 15 independent experiments; p<0.01 conover  
433 posthoc comparisons, Figure 5G-J). Average speed also increased following a  
434 increase of ENE (+17+/-3.8% Figure 5J, green boxplot) while it did not change  
435 following a decrease of ENE (Figure 5J, red boxplot).

436 These results showed that the consequences of perturbing the embryonic  
437 electrical excitability are different on the cruises episodes and on bursts episodes,  
438 suggesting that the underlying neural networks of these swimming modes are not the  
439 same and/or that they are not regulated in the same way following changes in ENE.

#### 440 **Kinetics of the direct effects of acute pharmacological treatments on the** 441 **locomotion of 6-7 dpf larvæ.**

442 To exclude a direct effect of the drugs used on the larvæ locomotion, we next  
443 followed the time course of the effects of acute pharmacological treatments (veratridine  
444 and TCNF) in 6-7 dpf larvæ. We performed 10 minutes recording sessions before  
445 application of the treatments, then +2 hours, and 24 hours after the treatments.

446 For cruises episodes, the results obtained following acute veratridine applications  
447 are close from the one induced by the embryonic applications with a decrease of the  
448 number of episodes and an increase of the duration and the distance. Only the results  
449 for the average speed are different since it was not significantly different following acute  
450 application while it increased following embryonic application (Figure 6A-D green  
451 boxplots). Following T.C.N.F applications the number of events decreased like similarly

452 as following embryonic application while duration, distance and average speed  
453 remained unchanged (Figure 6A-D red boxplots).

454 For bursts episodes, acute treatments had overall similar effects on the recorded  
455 parameters as the one recorded after treatments performed in 2-3 dpf embryos (Figure  
456 6). Veratridine application induced an increase of duration and distance, while the  
457 number of events and the average speed were not significantly different (Figure 6E-H  
458 green boxplots). T.C.N.F application led to a decrease of number of events, duration  
459 and distance during bursts, only the average speed remained unchanged  
460 (Figure 6E- H red boxplots).

461 By the next day, while some of the effects of the acute treatments are still  
462 detectable, all the effects of these treatments on bursts episodes had faded away  
463 (Figure 6E-H, lighter colored boxplots). These results clearly show that the delay  
464 between the embryonic treatments and our analysis of larval locomotion is longer than  
465 the time required for the disappearance of the acute effect of the drugs. Hence, these  
466 results support the existence of a long-term effect related to changes in electrical  
467 activity during the embryonic period in the zebrafish.

## 468 **Discussion (1261 / 1500w)**

### 469 *Summary*

470 Immature forms of excitability, referred to here as Embryonic Neuronal Excitability  
471 (ENE), including calcium spikes and activation of non-synaptic receptors to  
472 neurotransmitters, contribute to modulate neuronal differentiation. Here we show that  
473 the developing zebrafish is a suitable model to manipulate ENE using pharmacological  
474 treatments and to study the consequences of these manipulations on the plasticity of  
475 neuromodulator systems, at works in the pathogenesis of several human  
476 neuropsychiatric diseases. Indeed, we report that ENE exerts a positive regulatory  
477 effect on the specification of the dopaminergic phenotype by increasing the number of  
478 dopamine cells in the telencephalon. The pharmacological manipulation of ENE has  
479 also a clear behavioral outcome by changing the occurrence of high-speed episodes  
480 of swimming in zebrafish larvæ.

### 481 *Balneation treatments and ENE*

482 For the present study, zebrafish embryos were exposed to pharmacological  
483 compounds by means of balneation treatments. This methodological approach allows  
484 performing global and transient drugs applications, relevant to natural situations where  
485 embryos can be exposed to various biologically active or toxic compounds. Zebrafish  
486 is highly suitable for such questions because of its external development in an egg,  
487 and because its blood brain barrier is not fully mature until 10 dpf, allowing diffusion of  
488 the drugs to the neuronal tissues. As a consequence, we were able to analyze  
489 alterations by pharmacological treatments of calcium transients, one of the main form  
490 of immature excitability.

491 We focused on calcium transients to assess the effectiveness of the treatments, but  
492 other intercellular communication processes such as the paracrine activation of GABA

493 and glutamate receptors by endogenous transmitters are also likely perturbed by the  
494 treatments. Further studies are required to decipher the specific contribution of each  
495 of these mechanisms to the cellular and behavioral effects we reported here.

#### 496 *Calcium transients in the zebrafish forebrain*

497 One reason to focus on calcium transients is that they have been involved in  
498 neurotransmitter phenotype specification in other models of neuronal plasticity. In  
499 addition, calcium transients are conveniently measured by calcium imaging.

500 Calcium transients were already reported in the spinal cord of zebrafish embryos  
501 around 24 hpf. Here, recordings were performed in the forebrain of embryonic  
502 zebrafish around 48 hpf, a time at which the transition toward synaptic network activity  
503 has occurred in the spinal cord. These observations are in accordance with the  
504 existence of an postero-anterior gradient of neuronal maturation, similar to what was  
505 described in xenopus.

506 Calcium transients in the forebrain had frequency and duration similar to what has  
507 been described in the zebrafish spinal cord. This duration is overall shorter than what  
508 has been observed in the *Xenopus* nervous system. The basis of these interspecies  
509 differences are not known, but it suggests that the duration of the transients is not  
510 necessarily the pertinent signal to trigger the effect on neuronal differentiation. This is  
511 further suggested by the results of the TCNF treatments reported here, which lead to  
512 changes in DA specification and in locomotion parameters, while the duration of  
513 individual spikes duration was not changed.

514 We chose to drive the expression of GCamp by an exogenous trigger, here a heat-  
515 shock. This allowed the expression of the calcium reporter in all the cells present at  
516 the selected period of recordings. The next step of our approach will thus be to use  
517 differentiation markers of the DA lineage to identify the differentiation status of the cells

518 where the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  spikes are detected, and also to see whether there are different  
519 dynamics of the calcium transients between different subregions of interest in the  
520 embryonic brain by using whole brain calcium imaging.

### 521 *Identification of a biomarker for DA reserve pool neurons?*

522 The effect of ENE perturbations on the DA phenotype analyzed by the number of  
523 TH1+ cells was in agreement with the homeostatic rule described in xenopus. Indeed,  
524 DA phenotype was enhanced by increased excitability, as expected from an overall  
525 inhibitory neurotransmitter. The relative constancy of the number of vMAT2+ cells,  
526 together with the absence of significant change in caspase 3-labelled cells upon  
527 treatments, suggest that modulation of excitability did not affect cell death or  
528 proliferation, but rather triggered a plasticity of the dopaminergic phenotype. This  
529 plasticity of the DA phenotype is likely to occur within the pool of vMAT2+ cells, since  
530 the number of VMAT2+/TH+ was increased with increased excitability, at the expense  
531 of VMAT2+/TH- cells. Therefore, the VMAT2+/TH- cells would be a reserve pool of  
532 cells primed to become dopamine neurons when plasticity-triggering events occur.  
533 Although somewhat peculiar at first sight, the expression of the vesicular transporter  
534 in a reserve pools of cells, might have a functional advantage in term of response to  
535 plasticity-triggering events, limiting the number of factors to be changed for reaching a  
536 fully functional dopamine phenotype.

### 537 *Behavioral consequences of ENE*

538 Perturbations of ENE had also behavioral consequences in zebrafish larvæ. For  
539 bursts episodes, the initiation of movement is likely to be the prime parameter modified  
540 following ENE perturbations. Interestingly, hyperlocomotion is an endophenotype  
541 related to ADHD and schizophrenia in zebrafish (Blin et al., 2008; Lange et al., 2018).  
542 Determining whether a direct activation of TeIDA cells could trigger an increase of

543 bursts episodes is an interesting perspective for the future, as seeing whether other  
544 behaviors related to ADHD and schizophrenia such as prepulse inhibition are also  
545 affected by alterations of ENE.

#### 546 *Critical period for the effect of ENE perturbations*

547 We observed an effect of the pharmacological treatments performed during the  
548 embryonic period on spontaneous locomotion several days after the end of the  
549 treatments. In contrast, no effects were observed 24 hours after treatments performed  
550 at 6 dpf in the zebrafish larvæ. These long-lasting effects of treatments at specific  
551 embryonic time are in line with the existence of a critical developmental period, more  
552 sensitive to homeostatic perturbations, promoting therefore significant phenotypic  
553 plasticity in immature neurons. Interestingly, dopaminergic systems have multiple  
554 functional role and are particularly prone to plasticity events, suggesting that these  
555 systems might be a key factor for adaptability of the animals to environmental changes.  
556 Whether it is a cause, a consequence or a simple correlation of their conservation  
557 throughout animal evolution is still an open question.

#### 558 *Potential involvement of changes of ENE in the pathogenesis of brain disease*

559 According to the 'Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD)  
560 hypothesis, transient exposure to perturbations during the development could lead to  
561 emergence of disease in young or adult individuals (Mandy & Nyirenda, 2018).  
562 Neurological and psychiatric diseases, such as autism spectrum disorders, ADHD, or  
563 schizophrenia are hypothesized to have a developmental origin. The environmental  
564 factors potentially contributing to these pathologies include malnutrition, stress, and  
565 drugs exposure during the embryonic period.

566 Results from epidemiological studies and experiments in rodents further suggest  
567 that a range of functional and behavioral abnormalities observed in the mature system

568 result from early alterations of dopaminergic neurons differentiation. The data  
569 presented here point to an implication of ENE in the regulation of dopaminergic  
570 differentiation in the developing brain, suggesting that ENE could act as an  
571 intermediate between environmental factors and the molecular changes leading to the  
572 alteration of dopamine-related behaviors.

573 These results provide a firm basis to dissect further the cellular and molecular  
574 mechanisms linking exposure to external challenges with the subsequent changes in  
575 ENE, in the maturation of the dopaminergic systems and its behavioral outputs. A  
576 comparative study of the transcription factors differentially expressed in vMAT2 cells  
577 following changes in ENE, would help identify dopaminergic related factors having an  
578 activity-dependent expression, including epigenetic effectors (level of methylation,  
579 histone acetylation).

580 Such mechanisms are underlying phenotypes related to ADHD and schizophrenia  
581 in zebrafish, and opens new avenues to better understand how environmental factors  
582 could promote developmental brain disorders such as schizophrenia and ADHD.

## 583 **Bibliography**

584 Blankenship AG & Feller MB (2010) Mechanisms underlying spontaneous patterned  
585 activity in developing neural circuits. *Nat.Rev.Neurosci.* 11:18–29.

586 Blin M, Norton W, Bally-Cuif L, Vernier P, Laure B-C & Vernier P (2008) NR4A2  
587 controls the differentiation of selective dopaminergic nuclei in the zebrafish brain.  
588 *Molecular and cellular neurosciences* 39:592–604.

589 Borodinsky LN, Root CM, Cronin JA, Sann SB, Gu X & Spitzer NC (2004) Activity-  
590 dependent homeostatic specification of transmitter expression in embryonic  
591 neurons. *Nature* 429:523–530.

- 592 Crepel V, Aronov D, Jorquera I, Represa A, Ben-Ari Y & Cossart R (2007) A  
593 parturition-associated nonsynaptic coherent activity pattern in the developing  
594 hippocampus. *Neuron* 54:105–120.
- 595 Demarque M, Represa A, Becq H, Khalilov I, Ben-Ari Y & Aniksztejn L (2002)  
596 Paracrine intercellular communication by a Ca<sup>2+</sup>- and SNARE-independent  
597 release of GABA and glutamate prior to synapse formation. *Neuron* 36:1051–  
598 1061.
- 599 Demarque M & Spitzer NC (2010) Activity-Dependent Expression of Lmx1b  
600 Regulates Specification of Serotonergic Neurons Modulating Swimming  
601 Behavior. *Neuron* 67:321–334.
- 602 Dulcis D, Jamshidi P, Leutgeb S & Spitzer NC (2013) Neurotransmitter switching in  
603 the adult brain regulates behavior. *Science* 340:449–453.
- 604 Dulcis D, Lippi G, Stark CJ, Do LH, Berg DK & Spitzer NC (2017) Neurotransmitter  
605 Switching Regulated by miRNAs Controls Changes in Social Preference. *Neuron*  
606 95:1319-1333.e5.
- 607 Dulcis D & Spitzer NC (2008) Illumination controls differentiation of dopamine  
608 neurons regulating behaviour. *Nature* 456:195–201.
- 609 Dulcis D & Spitzer NC (2012) Reserve pool neuron transmitter respecification: Novel  
610 neuroplasticity. *Developmental Neurobiology* 72:465–474.
- 611 Gawel K, Banono NS, Michalak A & Esguerra C V. (2019) A critical review of  
612 zebrafish schizophrenia models: Time for validation? *Neuroscience and*  
613 *Biobehavioral Reviews* 107:6–22.
- 614 Gomez TM, Robles E, Poo M & Spitzer NC (2001) Filopodial calcium transients

- 615 promote substrate-dependent growth cone turning. *Science* 291:1983–1987.
- 616 Gomez TM & Spitzer NC (1999) In vivo regulation of axon extension and pathfinding  
617 by growth-cone calcium transients. *Nature* 397:350–355.
- 618 Klein MO, Battagello DS, Cardoso AR, Hauser DN, Bittencourt JC & Correa RG  
619 (2019) Dopamine: Functions, Signaling, and Association with Neurological  
620 Diseases. *Cellular and Molecular Neurobiology* 39:31–59.
- 621 Lange M, Froc C, Grunwald H, Norton WHJ & Bally-Cuif L (2018) Pharmacological  
622 analysis of zebrafish *lphn3.1* morphant larvae suggests that saturated  
623 dopaminergic signaling could underlie the ADHD-like locomotor hyperactivity.  
624 *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry* 84:181–189.
- 625 Lange M, Norton W, Coolen M, Chaminade M, Merker S, Proft F, Schmitt A, Vernier  
626 P, Lesch K-P & Bally-Cuif L (2012) The ADHD-linked gene *Lphn3.1* controls  
627 locomotor activity and impulsivity in zebrafish. *Molecular psychiatry* 17:855.
- 628 Ma PM (1994a) Catecholaminergic systems in the zebrafish. I. Number, morphology,  
629 and histochemical characteristics of neurons in the locus coeruleus. *Journal of*  
630 *Comparative Neurology* 344:242–255.
- 631 Ma PM (1994b) Catecholaminergic systems in the zebrafish. II. Projection pathways  
632 and pattern of termination of the locus coeruleus. *Journal of Comparative*  
633 *Neurology* 344:256–269.
- 634 Ma PM (1997) Catecholaminergic systems in the zebrafish. III. Organization and  
635 projection pattern of medullary dopaminergic and noradrenergic neurons.  
636 *Journal of Comparative Neurology* 381:411–427.
- 637 Ma PM (2003) Catecholaminergic systems in the zebrafish. IV. Organization and

- 638 projection pattern of dopaminergic neurons in the diencephalon. *Journal of*  
639 *Comparative Neurology* 460:13–37.
- 640 Mandy M & Nyirenda M (2018) Developmental Origins of Health and Disease: the  
641 relevance to developing nations. *International health* 10:66–70.
- 642 Murray RM, Bhavsar V, Tripoli G & Howes O (2017) 30 Years on: How the  
643 Neurodevelopmental Hypothesis of Schizophrenia Morphed Into the  
644 Developmental Risk Factor Model of Psychosis. *Schizophrenia Bulletin* 43:1190–  
645 1196.
- 646 Owens DF & Kriegstein AR (1998) Patterns of intracellular calcium fluctuation in  
647 precursor cells of the neocortical ventricular zone. *Journal of Neuroscience*  
648 18:5374–5388.
- 649 Owens DF & Kriegstein AR (2002) Is there more to GABA than synaptic inhibition?  
650 *Nat.Rev.Neurosci.* 3:715–727.
- 651 Plazas P V, Nicol N & Spitzer NC (2013) Activity-dependent competition regulates  
652 motor neuron axon pathfinding via PlexinA3. *Proceedings of the National*  
653 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 110:1524–1529.
- 654 Scain AL, Le Corrionc H, Allain AE, Muller E, Rigo JM, Meyrand P, Branchereau P &  
655 Legendre P (2010) Glycine release from radial cells modulates the spontaneous  
656 activity and its propagation during early spinal cord development. *Journal of*  
657 *Neuroscience* 30:390–403.
- 658 Schweitzer J & Driever W (2009) Development of the dopamine systems in zebrafish.  
659 *Adv Exp Med Biol* 651:1–14.
- 660 Schweitzer J, Löhr H, Filippi A & Driever W (2012) Dopaminergic and noradrenergic

661 circuit development in zebrafish. *Developmental Neurobiology* 72:256–268.

662 Spitzer NC, Kingston PA, Manning TJ & Conklin MW (2002) Outside and in:  
663 development of neuronal excitability. *Curr.Opin.Neurobiol.* 12:315–323.

664 Tay TL, Ronneberger O, Ryu S, Nitschke R & Driever W (2011) Comprehensive  
665 catecholaminergic projectome analysis reveals single-neuron integration of  
666 zebrafish ascending and descending dopaminergic systems. *Nature*  
667 *Communications* 2:112–171.

668 Warp E, Agarwal G, Wyart C, Friedmann D, Oldfield CS, Conner A, Del Bene F,  
669 Arrenberg AB, Baier H, Isacoff EY, Bene F, Arrenberg AB, Baier H & Isacoff EY  
670 (2012) Emergence of patterned activity in the developing zebrafish spinal cord.  
671 *Current Biology* 22:93–102.

672 Yamamoto K, Ruuskanen JO, Wullimann MF & Vernier P (2011) Differential  
673 expression of dopaminergic cell markers in the adult zebrafish forebrain. *The*  
674 *Journal of comparative neurology* 519:576–598.

675



## Figure legends

**Figure 1** Presence of calcium spikes in the zebrafish telencephalon and their manipulations by transient balneation in pharmacological agents.

**A.** Consecutive images of a confocal time series of the brain of 48 hpf of Et(hsp:gal4;UAS:GCamp6f) embryos in control conditions. Fluorescence is displayed on a pseudocolor scale, the look up images intensity scale coding is shown in the right corner of the first image. Scale bar is 100 $\mu$ m. White dash circle surround the cell body of a cell displaying a calcium transient.

**B.** Changes in fluorescence intensity are plotted as a function of time. Ca<sup>2+</sup> transients were scored for fluorescence changes, more than two times the SD of the baseline (dashed lines), and >3 sec in duration, calculated as the width at half-maximum. Representative traces from control conditions (in blue), following veratridine treatment (in green) and following treatment with a pharmacological cocktail containing TTX (2.5  $\mu$ M),  $\omega$ -Conotoxin (0.1  $\mu$ M), Nifedipine (0.5  $\mu$ M) and Flunarizine (2.5  $\mu$ M) (TCNF, in red).

**C.** Left, boxplots showing the mean duration of single calcium spikes in control conditions (in blue, 3.3 $\pm$ 1.6 sec), following veratridine treatment (in green, 3.7 $\pm$ 1.7 sec) and following TCNF treatment (in red, 3.4 $\pm$ 1.4 sec).

Middle, boxplots showing the mean frequency of calcium transients in control conditions (in blue, 6.6 $\pm$ 5.4 spikes per hour, n=28 cells from 5 independent preparations), following veratridine treatment (in green, 9.2 $\pm$ 6.6 spikes per hour, n=36 cells form 4 independent preparations) and following TCNF treatment (in red, 4.7 $\pm$ 3 spikes per hour, n=17 cells form 4 independent preparations).

Right, boxplots showing the mean incidence of single calcium spikes in control conditions (in blue,  $45.2 \pm 9.7\%$ ,  $n=5$  independent preparations), following veratridine treatment (in green,  $58.8 \pm 9.7\%$ ,  $n=4$  independent preparations) and in the presence of TCNF (in red,  $4.7 \pm 3$  spikes per hour,  $n=17$  cells from 4 independent preparations).

**Figure 2** Effects of 24hrs balneation treatment on the number of dopaminergic neurons in the zebrafish larval telencephalon and OB.

**A.** Maximum projection of confocal z series of the brain of 6-7 dpf Et(VMAT2:eGFP) larvæ, in control conditions (left column boxed in blue), in the presence of veratridine (middle column, boxed in green) and in the presence of TCNF (right column, boxed in red). Immunostaining to TH (magenta) and GFP (cyan) and DAPI (yellow) are shown as merge and individual channels. Scale bars = 50  $\mu\text{m}$ .

**B-E.** Boxplots showing the mean number of IR cells in control conditions, in the presence of veratridine and in the presence of “TCNF” in the telencephalon (B,C) and in the olfactory bulb (C,D), for TH (B,D) and for GFP (vMAT2 cells, C,E).

**Figure 3** Absence of changes in cell death following increase or decrease of ENE

**A.** Maximum projection of confocal z series of the brain of 6-7 dpf Et(VMAT2:eGFP) larvæ, in control conditions (left image boxed in blue), in the presence of veratridine (middle image, boxed in green) and in the presence of TCNF (right image, boxed in red). Immunostaining to caspase-3 (magenta) and GFP (cyan) are shown as merged channels. Scale bars = 50  $\mu\text{m}$ .

**B.** Boxplots showing the mean number of IR cells in control conditions, in the presence of veratridine and in the presence of “TCNF” for the caspase-3 staining in the olfactory bulb and the telencephalon.

#### **Figure 4** Maturation of locomotion parameters

**A-H.** Boxplots showing the mean of 4 swimming parameters, number of episode (A,E), total duration (B,F), distance covered during swimming (C,G) and speed (D,H) for cruises episodes (A-D) and for bursts episodes (E-H) at different stage of larval development (4, 5, 6, and 7dpf).

**Figure 5** Effects of 24hrs balneation treatments during embryonic development on spontaneous swimming of zebrafish larvæ.

**A.** Time line of the experiments indicating the timing (in days post fertilization, dpf) for the pharmacological treatments, and the following locomotion tests.

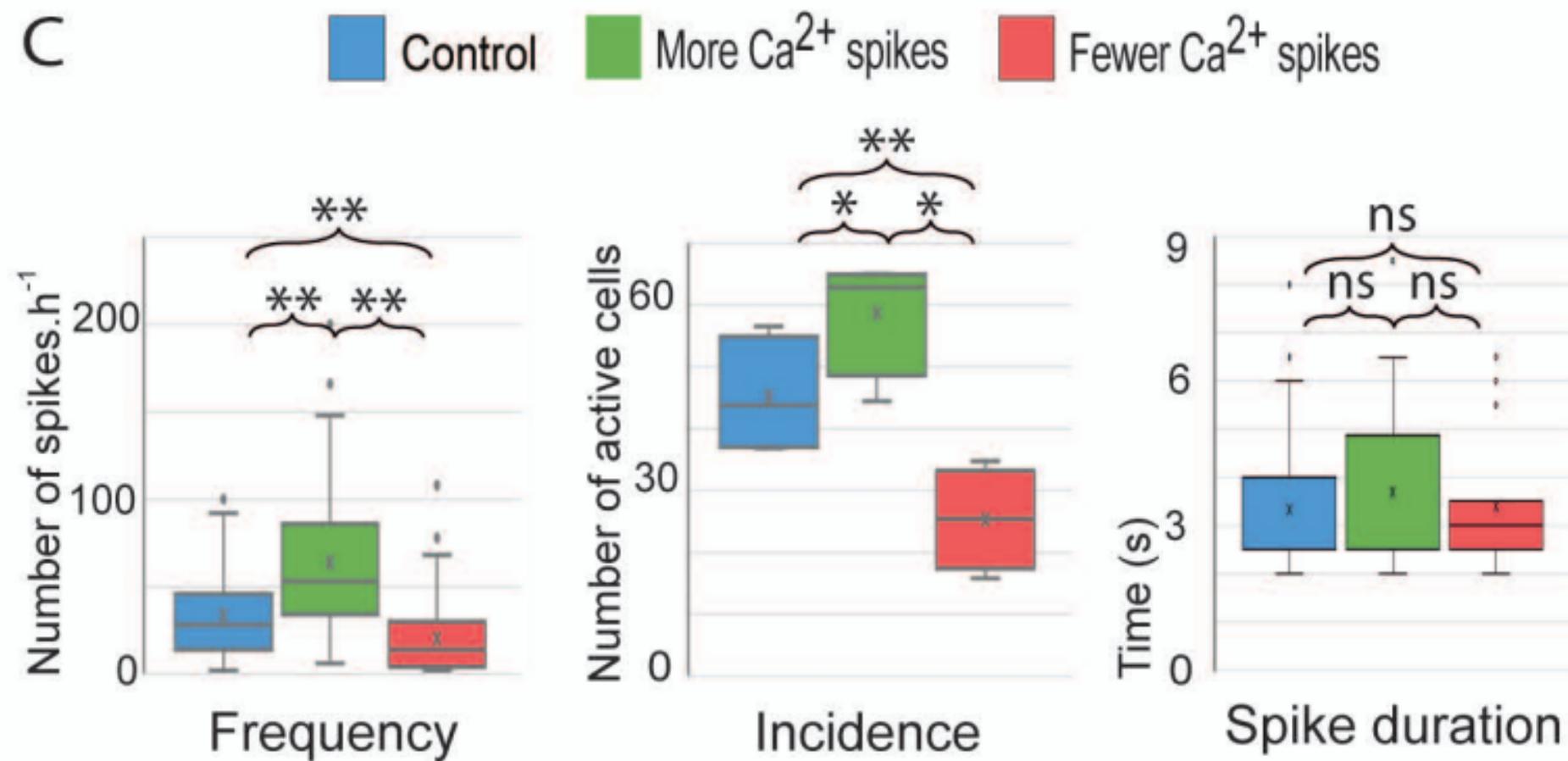
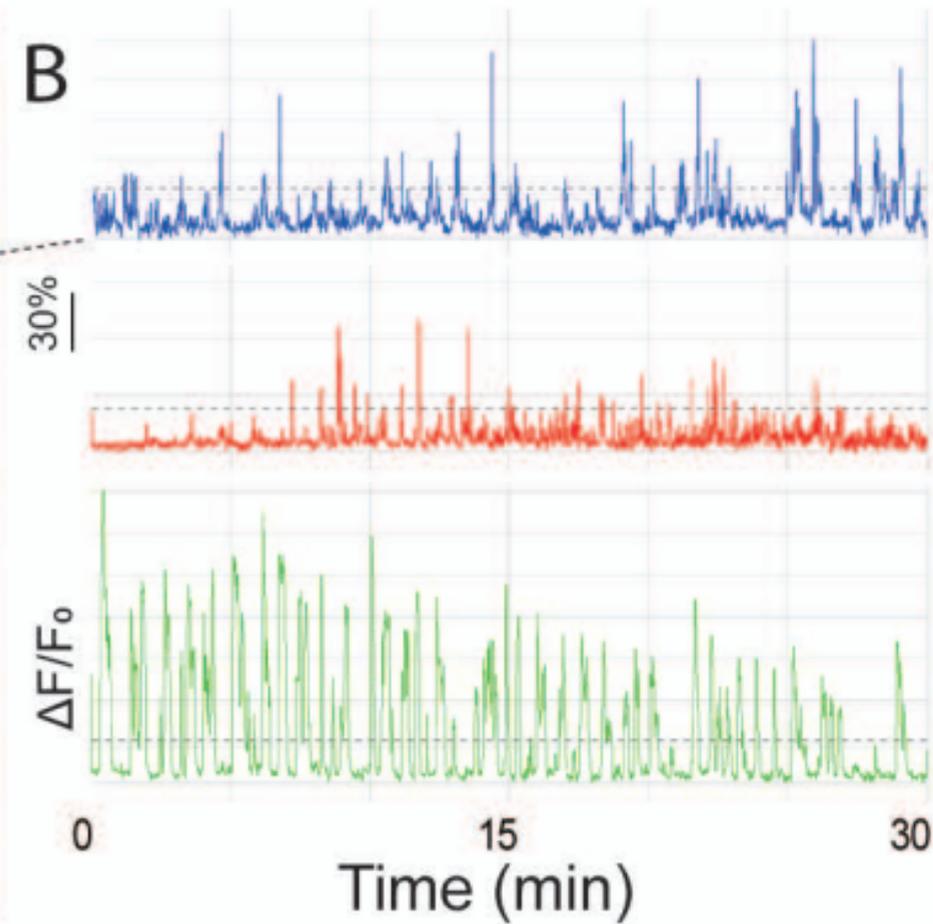
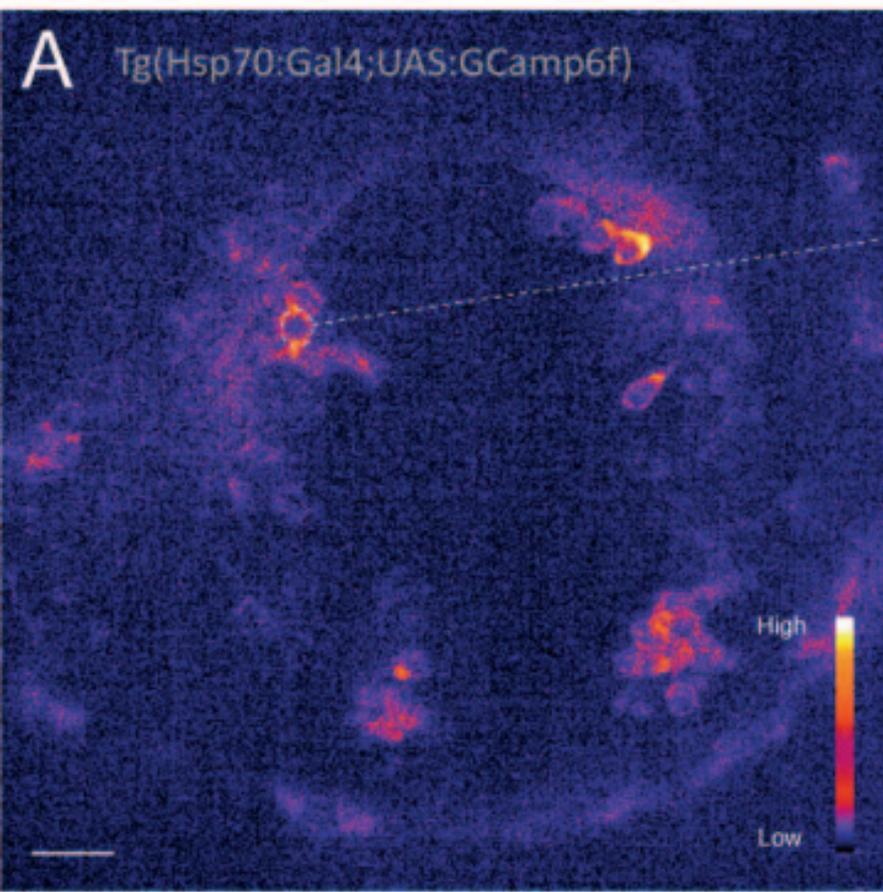
**B.** Representative path reconstructions for 24 individual larvæ during a 10 minutes trial for three experimental conditions. The portion of the path corresponding to bursts episodes (shown in red) are longer when early activity is increased (veratridine treatment) and shorter when early activity is decreased (T.C.N.F. treatment).

**C-J.** Boxplots showing the mean of different swimming parameters in different experimental conditions, Mean number of episode (C,G), total duration (D,H), distance covered during swimming (E,I) and speed (F,J) are shown for cruises episodes (C-F) and for bursts episodes (G-J).

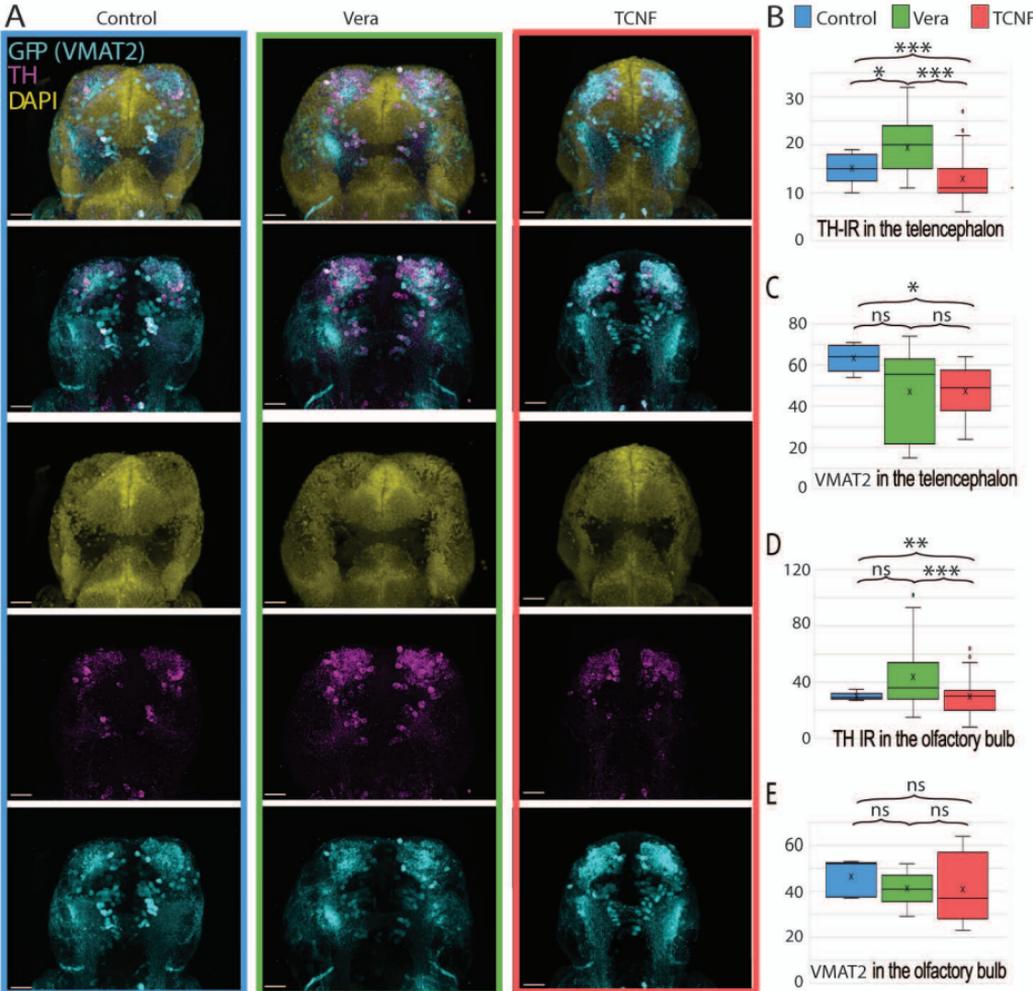
**Figure 6** Effects of 2hrs acute balneation treatments on zebrafish spontaneous swimming.

**A-H.** Boxplots showing the mean of different swimming parameters, mean number of episode (A,E), total duration (B,F), distance covered during swimming (C,G) and speed (D,H), for cruises episodes (A-D) and for bursts episodes (E-H), in different experimental conditions. The effects of 2hrs acute treatments with DMSO,

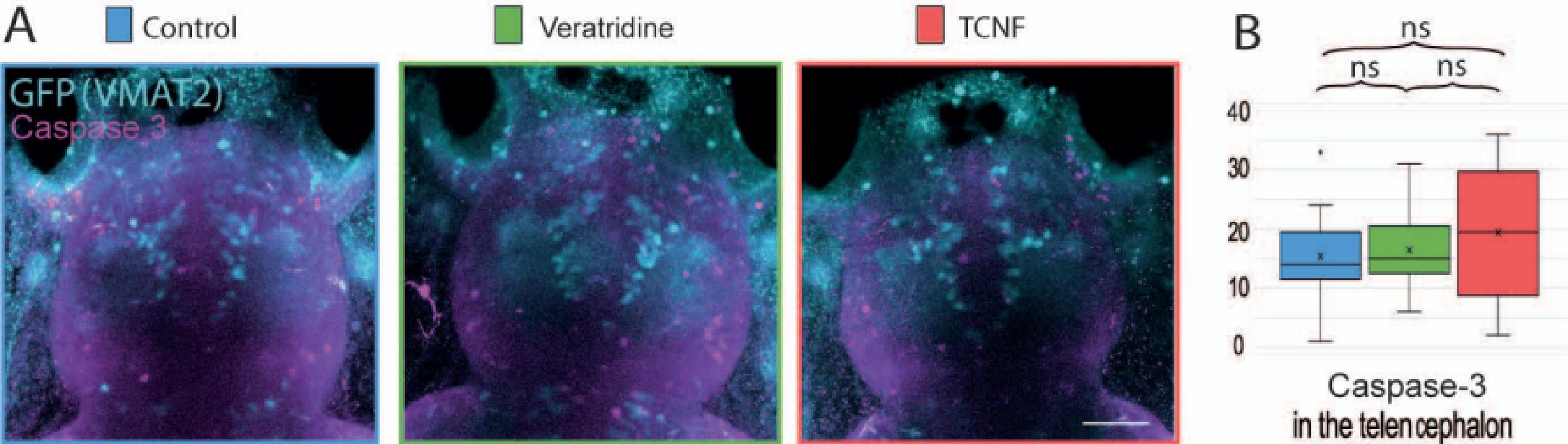
Veratridine, or TCNF are compared to pre-application recordings and 24hrs post-application recordings.



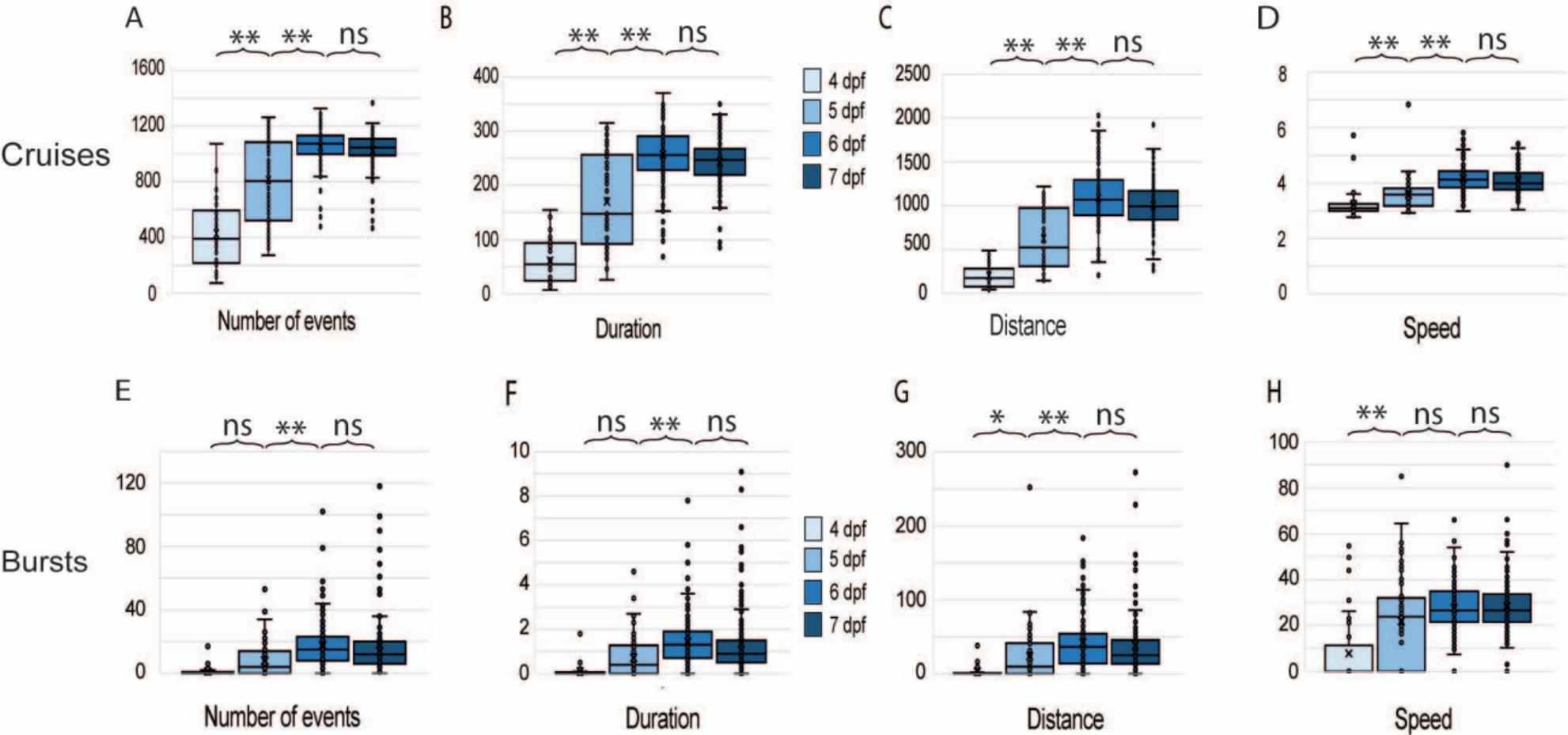
Bataille et al., Figure 1. Calcium spikes and their modulation by pharmacological treatments, in the embryonic zebrafish forebrain



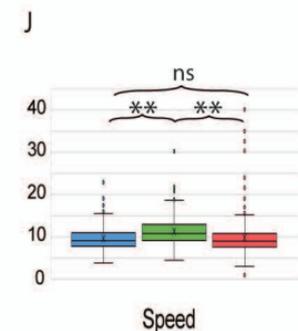
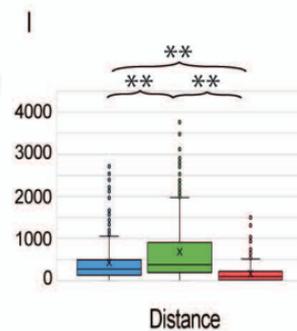
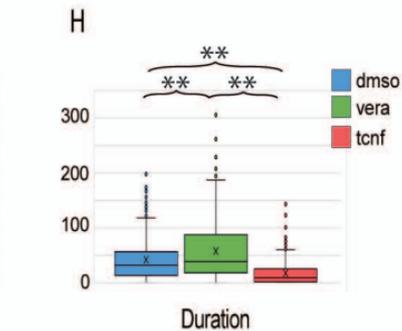
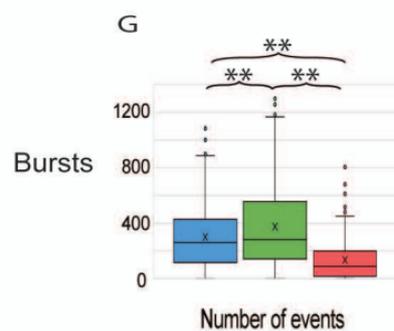
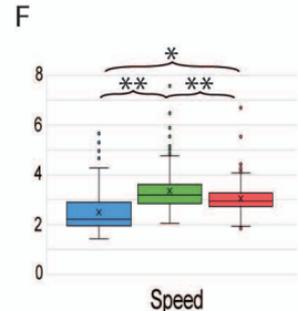
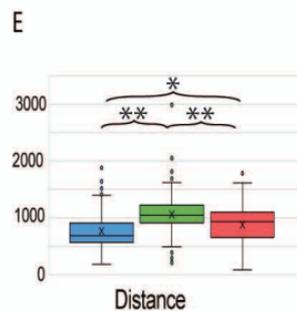
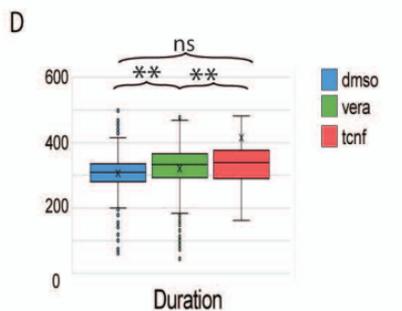
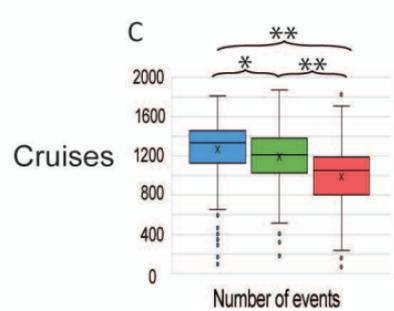
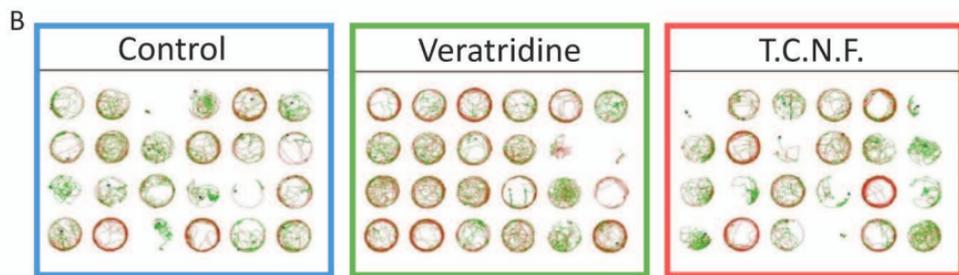
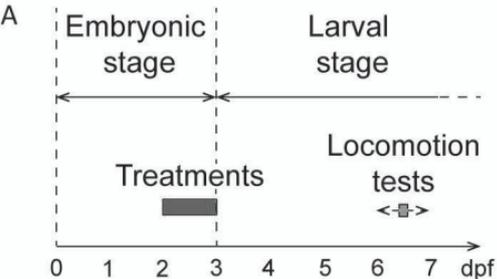
Bataille et al., Figure 2. Effects of ENE on the number of DA neurons in the zebrafish forebrain



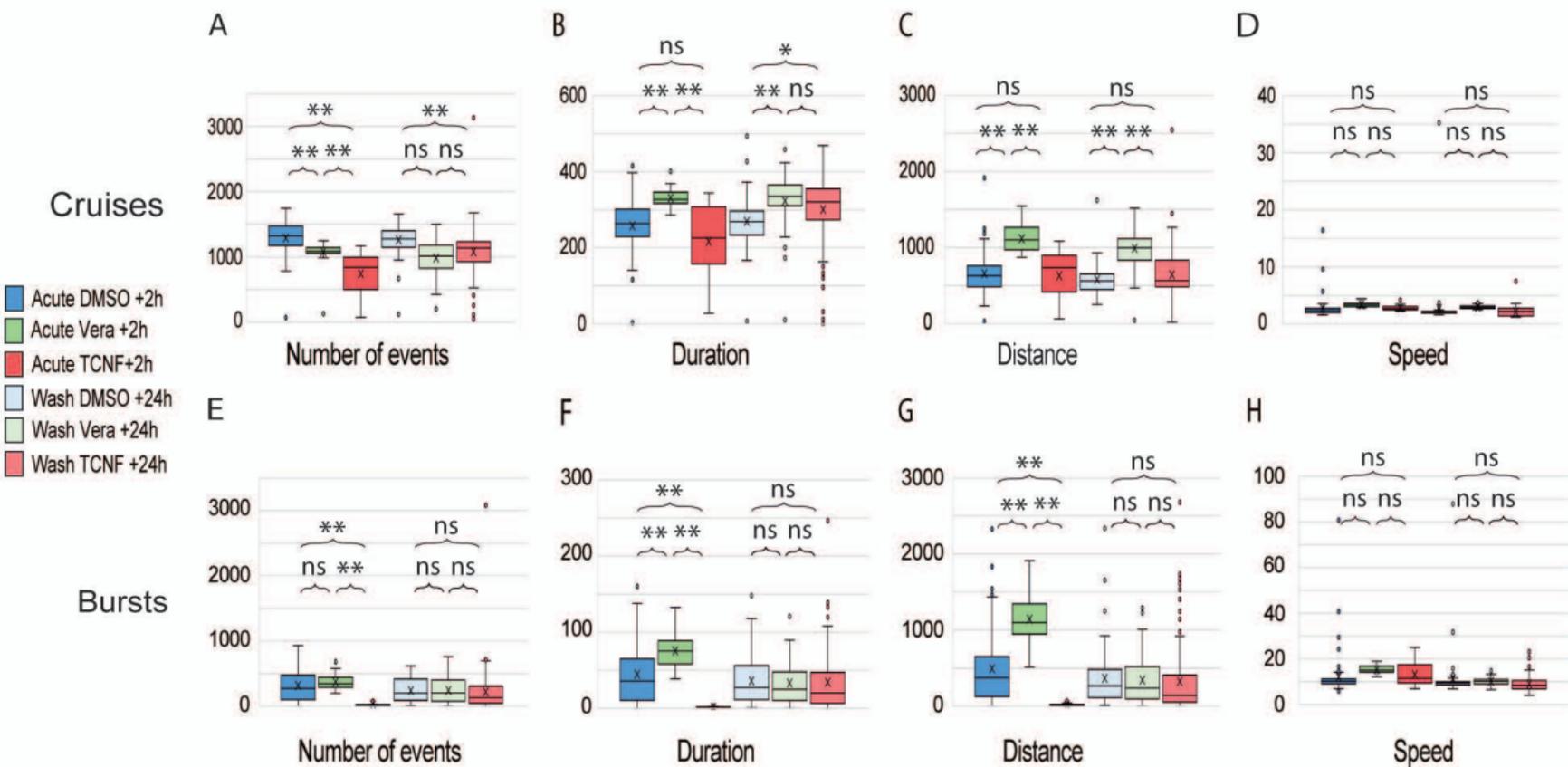
Bataille et al., Figure 3. Effects of ENE on caspase-3 expression in the larval zebrafish forebrain



Bataille et al., Figure 4. Development of zebrafish spontaneous locomotion



Bataille et al., Figure 5. Effects of ENE on the zebrafish spontaneous locomotion



Bataille et al., Figure 6. Effects of acute pharmacological treatments on the zebrafish spontaneous locomotion