

1 **Genetic or toxicant induced disruption of vesicular monoamine storage and**
2 **global metabolic profiling in *Caenorhabditis elegans***

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24

1 **Abstract**

2 The proper storage and release of monoamines contributes to a wide range of neuronal
3 activity. Here, we examine the effects of altered vesicular monoamine transport in the nematode
4 *C. elegans*. The gene *cat-1* is responsible for the encoding of the vesicular monoamine transporter
5 (VMAT) in *C. elegans* and is analogous to the mammalian vesicular monoamine transporter 2
6 (VMAT2). Our laboratory has previously shown that reduced VMAT2 activity confers
7 vulnerability on catecholamine neurons in mice. The purpose of this paper was to determine
8 whether this function is conserved and to determine the impact of reduced VMAT activity in *C.*
9 *elegans*. Here we show that deletion of *cat-1*/VMAT increases sensitivity to the neurotoxicant 1-
10 methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (MPP⁺) as measured by enhanced degeneration of dopamine neurons.
11 Reduced *cat-1*/VMAT also induces changes in dopamine-mediated behaviors. High-resolution
12 mass spectrometry-based metabolomics in the whole organism reveals changes in amino acid
13 metabolism, including tyrosine metabolism in the *cat-1*/VMAT mutants. Treatment with MPP⁺
14 disrupted tryptophan metabolism. Both conditions altered glycerophospholipid metabolism,
15 suggesting a convergent pathway of neuronal dysfunction. Our results demonstrate the
16 evolutionarily conserved nature of monoamine function in *C. elegans* and further suggest that
17 HRMS-based metabolomics can be used in this model to study environmental and genetic
18 contributors to complex human disease

19

1 **Introduction**

2 The synaptic vesicle plays a significant role in the protection of neurons from toxic insult.
3 The vesicular amine transporters (VATs) are members of the toxin extruding antiporter (TEXAN)
4 gene family of proton antiporters, closely related to proteins in prokaryotic organisms that work to
5 exclude antibiotics from the cytoplasm (Parsons 2000; Schuldiner et al. 1995). In eukaryotes,
6 members of this family reside on the inner vesicular membrane and are instrumental in packaging
7 neurotransmitters into synaptic vesicles, ensuring the transmission of the action potential.
8 Additionally, these transporters have cytoprotective effects, keeping potentially toxic by-products
9 of neurotransmitters out of the cytoplasm (vesicular monoamine transporter 2, VMAT2) and
10 ensuring the replenishment of amine stores of acetylcholine in the synaptic cleft (vesicular
11 acetylcholine transporter, VACHT). The breakdown in this relationship can have potentially deadly
12 results. The adequate release of acetylcholine into the synapse is dependent on the vesicular
13 acetylcholine transporter (VACHT). Impairment of acetylcholine release into the synaptic cleft,
14 either through direct inhibition of VACHT (using vesamicol) or indirectly (using botulinum toxin)
15 can lead to respiratory failure and death (Burton et al. 1994; Dressler et al. 2005; Prior et al. 1992).
16 For other members of the TEXAN family, the breakdown of antiporter activity in synaptic vesicles
17 appears to result in direct toxicity to the cell from oxidized amines, like oxidized metabolites of
18 dopamine. (Spina and Cohen 1989).

19 When its storage is dysregulated, dopamine can accumulate in the cytosol where it is
20 vulnerable to oxidation and enzymatic catabolism. These processes generate reactive metabolites,
21 such as the dopamine quinone, as well as oxidative stress inducing reactive oxygen species (Stokes
22 et al. 1999) and catechol aldehydes (Goldstein et al. 2013; Vermeer et al. 2012). Through the utility
23 of mouse, *in-vitro* vesicular uptake, and cell culture models, we have established considerable
24 evidence that VMAT2 confers resistance to toxic insult in dopaminergic neurons as a graded
25 response in vesicular function (Caudle et al. 2007; Fumagalli et al. 1999; Lohr et al. 2014; Lohr et
26 al. 2016; Lohr et al. 2015). We have proposed this increase in VMAT2 leads to a proportional
27 increase in the storage capacity of monoaminergic synaptic vesicles (Lohr et al. 2014). This in
28 turn provides increased protection from both 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine
29 (MPTP) and N-methylamphetamine (METH) toxicity (Lohr et al. 2014; Lohr et al. 2016; Lohr et
30 al. 2015). Others have demonstrated similar results including VMAT2-mediated protection

1 against L-DOPA (the precursor to dopamine) and Parkinson's disease associated toxicants (Lawal
2 et al. 2010; Mosharov et al. 2009; Munoz et al. 2012). The hypothesis that increased vesicular
3 sequestration capacity is able to protect against endogenous and exogenous toxicants has been
4 supported in human studies that show a reduction in Parkinson's disease risk associated with gain
5 of function haplotypes in the promoter region of VMAT2 (Brighina et al. 2013; Glatt et al. 2006).

6 Recent findings highlight VMAT2 as a vulnerable target to environmental toxicants
7 (Caudle 2015; Caudle et al. 2012). Animal studies suggest that a range of chemical exposures
8 including pesticides, fungicides, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), polybrominated diphenyl
9 ethers (PBDE's), and perfluorinated compounds reduce the expression and function of VMAT2
10 and lead to symptoms closely resembling Parkinson's Disease (PD) (Bradner et al. 2013; Caudle
11 et al. 2005; Choi et al. 2015; Enayah et al. 2018; Inamdar et al. 2013; Miller et al. 1999; Patel et
12 al. 2016; Pham-Lake et al. 2017; Richardson et al. 2006; Richardson et al. 2008; Richardson and
13 Miller 2004; Schuh et al. 2009; Wilson et al. 2014; Xiong et al. 2016). Continued research into
14 the effects of these chemicals on the function of amine transporters should improve our
15 understanding of how they function to disrupt the vesicular integrity of the synaptic vesicle.

16 Despite the notable benefits of mouse and *in vitro* cell culture models, changes in behavior
17 and alterations in whole organism metabolic function are difficult and costly to perform in
18 mammalian models. As such, our lab has begun using *C. elegans* as a method to measure
19 neurotoxic outcomes as mediated by a protein 49% identical to VMAT2, a monoamine transporter
20 encoded by the gene *cat-1* (Duerr et al. 1999). In this manuscript we evaluate the effects of the
21 *cat-1* (*ok411*) mutant allele on *cat-1*/VMAT expression, dopamine neuron integrity, and
22 monoamine-dependent behaviors. We also determined the effects of reduced *cat-1*/VMAT on
23 vulnerability to the classical Parkinson's disease-associated toxicant 1-methyl-4-
24 phenylpyridinium (MPP⁺). Finally, we use high-resolution mass spectrometry-based
25 metabolomics to determine the impact of *cat-1*/VMAT reduction or MPP⁺ treatment on
26 metabolism, measured using the whole organism.

27 **Materials and Methods**

28 **Reagents**

29 Except where noted, all reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO).

1 **Phylogenetic relationships of vesicular amine transporters**

2 Sequences of vesicular amine transporters (supplemental data) from various species were
3 subjected to cladistic organization via bioinformatics online tools locate at www.phylogeny.fr
4 (Dereeper et al. 2008).

5 **Strains and Culture Conditions**

6 Long established standard methods of culture including the use of normal growth media
7 (NGM) plates, culture temperatures of 20° C and the OP50 *E. coli* strain as a food source were
8 followed as described (Brenner 1974). Deviations in this practice are mentioned in conjunction
9 with the relevant assay. *C. elegans* strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded by NIH
10 Office of Research Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). These include the wild type N2
11 Bristol strain, *dat-1 (ok157)* mutant strain, RB681 [*cat-1(ok411)*] mutant strain, the fluorescent
12 transgenic strain BZ555 (*pDAT::GFP*), and a cross between strain RB681 and BZ555
13 [*(pDAT::GFP; cat-1(ok411))*] created in our lab.

14 All nematodes (hereafter referred to as worms) used in experiments were synchronized at
15 the L1 stage using a bleach/sodium hydroxide mixture optimized following standard techniques
16 (Porta-de-la-Riva et al. 2012). Worms reared in liquid culture were maintained on a shaker set to
17 120 rpm, at 20° C. Liquid cultures were maintained in S-complete media and fed using the UV
18 sensitive strain NEC937, following UV exposure per N. Stroustrup (CRG, Barcelona, personal
19 communication).

20 **Genotyping**

21 Strains sourced from the CGC and those resulting from an in-house cross were genotyped
22 using standard polymerase chain reaction (PCR) techniques. Primers used to check the *cat-1*
23 (*ok411*) mutant allele are found in the description listing for strain RB681 on the website for the
24 CGC (Caenorhabditis_Genetics_Center 2020).

25 **Western Blot**

26 To visualize the *cat-1*/VMAT protein, *C. elegans* strains N2, *cat-1 (ok411)*, *cat-1 (e1111)*,
27 and *dat-1 (ok157)* were cultured on NGM plates. 50 worms of each strain were transferred to a
28 1.5ml Eppendorf tube containing 150 µl of M9. After washing three times with M9, the worm

1 pellet was suspended in 25 μ l of M9, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until use.
2 Prior to analysis, samples were thawed on ice, after which 25 μ l of Laemmli 2 \times sample buffer and
3 proteinase inhibitor cocktail were added and the sample mixtures were placed in a sonicating water
4 bath at room temperature for 2 minutes and immediately placed in heat block at 95°C for 5 minutes.
5 Samples were run on a NuPage 10% bis tris gel (Thermo Fisher, (Waltham, MA)) and transferred
6 to a PVDF membrane. Nonspecific antibody binding was blocked with a 7.5% milk in tris buffered
7 saline plus tween (TBST) solution for 1.5 hours at room temperature. The primary antibody used
8 was a polyclonal rabbit anti *cat-1*/VMAT serum generated by Dr. Richard Nass (IUSM, Indiana)
9 at a dilution of 1:1,000. The Secondary antibody used was a goat anti-rabbit HRP-conjugated at a
10 dilution of 1:5,000 (Jackson ImmunoResearch (West Grove, PA)).

11 **Immunohistochemistry**

12 The method was based on a previously published Freeze-Cracking protocol unless
13 otherwise specified (Duerr 2013). Poly-l-lysine coated slides were prepared to bind worms to
14 slides. Approximately 5,000 worms per strain were used to prepare multiple slides. A
15 Fisherbrand™ Cooling Cartridge (Thermo Fisher; Waltham, MA) pre-chilled overnight in -80°C
16 was used to freeze the slides. The slides were lightly fixed using the methanol-acetone method.
17 Nonspecific antibody binding was blocked with a 10% Goat Serum (Thermo Fisher (Waltham,
18 MA)) overnight at 4°C . The primary antibody used was a polyclonal rabbit anti *cat-1*/VMAT
19 serum generated by Dr. Richard Nass (IUSM, Indiana) at a dilution of 1:100. The secondary
20 antibody used was Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor
21 488 (Thermo Fisher; Waltham, MA). VECTASHIELD Antifade mounting medium with DAPI
22 (Vector Laboratories; Burlingame, CA) was added prior to sealing the coverslips with nail polish.
23 Images were taken at 40x magnification on a Leica DMI8 (Leica; Wetzlar, Germany) inverted
24 epifluorescent microscope.

25 **Analysis of monoamine derived behaviors**

26 To create reserpine assay plates, reserpine was dissolved in glacial acetic acid (50mM) and
27 diluted 1:80 in M9 for a final concentration of $625\mu\text{M}$. 400 μ l was added to the treatment plate
28 and allowed to dry before transferring worms (Duerr et al. 1999). Worms were seeded onto growth
29 plates (6 cm NGM with live OP50) as synchronized L1s and allowed to grow for 48 hours. Worms

1 were transferred to reserpine plates and left for 12 hours prior to behavioral assays except for egg
2 laying where worms were kept on reserpine plates until the second day of adulthood.

3 *Grazing*

4 Plates for assessing grazing behaviors were created per Duerr *et. al.* (Duerr et al. 1999). For
5 our assays, worms were rinsed off treatment plates and spotted in 20 μ l of M9 with approximately
6 100 worms per assay. A lint free tissue was used to wick away the M9 and the worms were
7 recorded using a FLIR chameleon 3 camera from Edmund Optics (Barrington, NJ) until either the
8 last worm entered the lawn or a maximum of 30 minutes. Videos were scored by a researcher
9 blind to treatment conditions, measuring the amount of time it took for each worm to enter the
10 lawn of OP50 (tip of nose to end of tail).

11 *Pharyngeal Pumping*

12 Pharyngeal contractions were scored by observation of worms through a standard
13 stereomicroscope, using finger taps on an electronic counting application while a timer was
14 running, a method similar to that previously described (Miller et al. 1996).

15 *Wave Initiation Rate*

16 The celeST software package was used as described to determine aspects of swim behavior
17 for the N2, *cat-1 (ok411)* and N2 worms treated with reserpine groups (Restif et al. 2014). Briefly,
18 4 worms were placed in 60 μ l of M9 on a glass slide. Recordings of swim behavior were made as
19 a series of jpeg images using a chameleon 3 camera ((FLIR) Wilsonville, OR)) for 30s at a frame
20 rate of 18 f/s. All subsequent analysis was completely automated using the celeST software
21 package.

22 *Egg Laying*

23 Retention of eggs inside worms was determined by dissolving 2-day-old adult worms
24 grown on agar in 20% hypochlorite in a 96 well plate and counting the number of eggs released.

25 **MPP⁺ Treatment**

26 Synchronized worms were grown using standard liquid culture (see above) using 125 ml
27 erlenmeyer flasks until they reached the YA stage of development. At this point, worms were

1 sorted using confirmed gating parameters into 96 well plates using the COPAS FP-250 large
2 particle flow cytometer (Union Biometrica, MA) to select for fully developed YA worms. Various
3 concentrations of MPP⁺ dissolved in water were added to the liquid culture (s-complete, 100uM
4 Floxuridine), and the worms were left at 20°C on a shaker for an additional 48 hours. Worms were
5 then anesthetized in 10mM sodium azide and the area surrounding the 6 dopamine neurons in the
6 head were photographed at 20x magnification using a Fisher Scientific EVOS epifluorescence
7 microscope (Waltham, MA) for later analysis. All photographs were taken using identical
8 objective, light intensity, and exposure settings. We used the Image J software to determine
9 neurodegeneration based on the total area of fluorescence post 48h of treatment, with the
10 observation that worms treated with MPP⁺ exhibit overall reductions of dopamine neuron size and
11 branching (Schindelin et al. 2012). First, photographs were converted into 8-bit grayscale tiff files.
12 Following conversion, the photographs were batch processed using the Yen automated
13 thresholding algorithm (Yen et al. 1995). Following thresholding, total area of GFP fluorescence
14 was calculated using the particle analysis plugin. Results were combined over 4 experiments as
15 percent area of untreated worms. Statistical testing using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey
16 HSD multiple comparisons were designed to compare the extent of degeneration between
17 *pDAT::GFP* worms and *pDAT::GFP* worms lacking the *cat-1/VMAT* protein (*pDAT::GFP; cat-1*
18 (*ok411*)) when treated with equivalent doses of MPP⁺. A small series of treatments were run
19 through the COPAS biosorter to get representative fluorescent profiles of worms treated with
20 MPP⁺.

21 **High resolution mass spectrometry-based metabolomics**

22 We applied untargeted high resolution mass spectrometry-based metabolomics (HRM) to
23 characterize metabolic effects of the *cat-1* mutation and MPP⁺ exposure in N2 worms. Worms
24 with the *cat-1 (ok411)* mutation and wildtype N2 worms were grown in liquid culture as described
25 above and 6 replicates per strain were collected in M9 at the L4 stage and snap frozen in liquid
26 nitrogen. Prior to MPP⁺ exposure, N2 worms were grown in liquid culture and at the L4 stage,
27 500 worms were sorted into wells of a 24-well plate using the COPAS FP-250. Worms were
28 exposed to 1mM MPP⁺ or the control for 4 hours, washed and snap frozen. All samples were stored
29 at -80°C until processed. Metabolites were extracted using acetonitrile (in a 2:1 ratio) which was
30 added to samples along with an internal standard (Soltow et al. 2013). Each sample was placed in

1 the bead beater to disrupt the cuticle, and included shaking at 6.5 m/s for 30 seconds, cooling on
2 ice for one minute, and placed in the beater for another 30 seconds, at the same speed (Mor 2020).
3 All processing was performed on ice or in a cold room when necessary. Untargeted high-resolution
4 mass spectrometry analysis was performed using a dual-chromatography and acetonitrile gradient
5 that included HILIC chromatography with positive electrospray ionization (HILIC-pos) and C18
6 column with negative electrospray ionization (C18-neg) (Walker et al. 2019). Mass spectral data
7 was generated on a ThermoFischer Q-Exactive HF Orbitrap mass spectrometer operated at
8 120,000 resolution over mass-to-charge (m/z) scan range 85 to 1250. Data were extracted using
9 the R packages apLCMS (Yu et al. 2009) and xMSanalyzer (Uppal et al. 2013).

10 The HILIC positive column measured 21,479 uniquely detected mass spectral features,
11 identified by accurate m/z , retention time and intensity in each sample. To focus on detection of
12 endogenous metabolites and pathways related to neurotransmitter metabolism, data analysis was
13 restricted to the HILIC-pos condition only.

14 ***cat-1*/VMAT and MPP⁺ metabolome wide association study**

15 We analyzed HRM results using three separate approaches to evaluate metabolic
16 alterations due to the *cat-1* mutation and MPP⁺ exposure: 1) The metabolic effect of the *cat-1*
17 mutation was characterized by comparison to wildtype N2 worms grown under identical
18 conditions. 2) Disruption to worm metabolic function following MPP⁺ exposure for exposed N2
19 worms and untreated N2 controls and 3) An overlap analysis was completed by identifying features
20 associated with both *cat-1* and MPP⁺ for similarities in disruption of systemic metabolic response
21 due to altered dopaminergic neuronal health. A feature was retained in each of the first two
22 analyses if its abundance in at least one worm sample was 1.5 times its abundance in the M9 buffer
23 used to wash and collect the worms. Prior to data analysis, missing values for each feature were
24 imputed with half the value of the minimum abundance, quantile normalized, \log_{10} transformed,
25 and auto scaled. Features were analyzed using t-tests, partial least squares discriminant analysis
26 (PLS-DA), hierarchical clustering, and pathway analysis using mummichog (Li et al. 2013). All
27 data processing, analysis and visualization was done in R version 3.6.0, using functions:
28 `preprocessCore::normalize.quantiles()` (Bolstad et al. 2003), `(RFmarkerDetector::autoscale()`
29 `(Palla 2015)`, `gplots::heatmap2()` (Gregory R. Warnes 2019), `ggplot2::ggplot()` (Wickham 2016),
30 and `mixOmics::plsda()` (Kim-Anh Le Cao 2016). Pathway analysis was completed using the

1 Mummichog algorithm (Li et al. 2013) hosted on the MetaboAnalyst (www.metaboanalyst.ca)
2 module “MS peaks to Pathway” (Chong et al. 2019), using the *Caenorhabditis elegans* metabolic
3 reference map available through KEGG. Using output from the t-tests, a nominal p-value cut-off
4 of 0.1 was used to select features for pathway analysis, using a mass tolerance of 5ppm for *cat-1(ok411)*
5 mutant and for wild-type worms treated with MPP⁺. Features that were different between wildtype
6 and *cat-1(ok411)* worms at $p < 0.1$ (356 features) were compared to features that were different
7 between MPP⁺ treated and control worms at $p < 0.1$ (801 features). To discover overlapping
8 features, we used the *getVenn()* function in the xMSanalyzer R package with a mass-to-charge
9 tolerance of 5 ppm and retention time tolerance of 5 seconds. We used the
10 *xMSanalyzer::feat.batch.annotation.KEGG()* function to determine level 4 annotations,
11 (Schymanski rating ((Schymanski et al. 2014)) for the overlapping features (Uppal et al. 2013).

12 **Statistics**

13 All data excluding metabolomics were analyzed using the Graphpad statistical software
14 package (San Diego, CA). All metabolomic analyses were conducted in R (version 4.0.2).

15 **Results**

16 **Phylogenetic relationships of vesicular amine transporters**

17 Cladistic relationships amongst vertebrate and invertebrate species between the vesicular
18 monoamine transporter(s) and the vesicular acetylcholine transporter are shown in Figure 1.

19 **Genotyping and protein analysis of *cat-1(ok411)***

20 The *ok411* mutant allele was produced by the high throughput *C. elegans* gene knockout
21 consortium (Consortium 2012). The mutation is a 429 basepair deletion resulting in complete loss
22 of the first coding exon in the *cat-1* gene and a loss of the *cat-1*/VMAT protein by western blot
23 and immunofluorescence (Figure 2, A, B, C). A breeding cross of the BZ555 *pDAT::GFP* with the
24 *cat-1(ok411)* mutant was successful in producing a transgenic with the mutant *cat-1(ok411)* allele
25 (Figure 2, A). Our efforts at immunostaining support the work of previous labs indicating the
26 expression pattern of *cat-1*/VMAT (Duerr et al. 1999; Serrano-Saiz et al. 2017).

1 **Monoamine derived behaviors**

2 The *cat-1(ok411)* mutant strain lacking *cat-1/VMAT* protein and pharmacological
3 inhibition of *cat-1/VMAT* in N2 worms treated with reserpine demonstrated defective grazing
4 behavior (Figure 3, A) indicative of disruption of dopamine and serotonin signaling. In order to
5 determine if this behavior is due to a general difference in motility, we subjected the *cat-1(ok411)*
6 strain and the reserpine treated N2 worms to automated swim behavior analysis using the celeST
7 software and found no significant difference between any of the groups using 10 different
8 measures of stroke analysis including a measure (wave initiation rate measured as: waves / minute)
9 analogous to the thrashing assay (Figure 3, D). We employed two measures of serotonergic
10 behaviors; egg laying and pharyngeal pumping. Worms with disrupted serotonergic signaling
11 tend to hold their eggs *in-utero* and have a reduced rate of pharyngeal pumping. We found the
12 *cat-1(ok411)* strain and N2 wild type worms treated with reserpine to be both deficient in egg
13 laying behavior and pharyngeal pumping (Figure 3, B & C).

14 **MPP⁺ exposure and neurodegeneration**

15 Worms treated with MPP⁺ exhibit reductions in total area consistent with the degeneration
16 of dopamine neurons (Figure 4, B). Representative fluorescent profiles using the COPAS biosorter
17 support this assertion (Figure 4, C). We find that BZ555 transgenic worms lacking *cat-1/VMAT*
18 protein are more susceptible to the toxic effects of MPP⁺ than the BZ555 transgenic worms with
19 *cat-1/VMAT* protein (Figure 4, A). Reductions in total GFP area occur at lower concentrations of
20 MPP⁺ in worms with the *cat-1(ok411)* mutant allele.

21 **Metabolomics**

22 There were 114 features (in red) different between the two groups with $p < 0.05$ (Figure 5,
23 A). There was also clear clustering of the features with $p < 0.05$ between the two groups (Figure
24 5, B). A metabolome wide association study of phenylalanine metabolism has shown that for
25 initial discovery purposes, raw p combined with metabolic pathway enrichment improves
26 detection of biological effect while reducing identification of false positive biological effects (Go
27 et al. 2015). Thus, for metabolic pathway enrichment, we considered all 356 features with $p < 0.1$.
28 It revealed several metabolic pathways altered with a fisher exact test p -value < 0.1 in the *cat-*

1 *I(ok411)* mutant (Figure 5, C), including tyrosine metabolism (Figure 5, C). A partial least squares
2 differential analysis showed separation of the wild type N2 and *cat-1(ok411)* groups (Figure 5, D).

3 Untargeted metabolomic analysis of worms exposed to MPP⁺ for 4 hours was performed
4 similarly to the *cat-1(ok411)* mutant. There were 199 features (in red) significantly different
5 between the treated and untreated groups with $p < 0.05$ (Figure 6, A). These significant features
6 clustered differently in the two groups as seen in the heatmap generated using hierarchical
7 clustering analysis (Figure 6, B). Pathway analysis using features with $p < 0.1$ (801 features) was
8 done using mummichog hosted on MetaboAnalyst. It revealed several pathways of interest (Figure
9 6, C), including the tyrosine and tryptophan metabolism pathway, glycerophospholipid
10 metabolism and the pentose glucuronate interconversions pathways. (Figure 6, C). A partial least
11 squares discriminant analysis was able to differentiate between the treatment groups (Figure 6, D).
12 Comparing features with $p < 0.1$ in *cat-1(ok411)* worms and worms exposed to MPP⁺ revealed 14
13 features altered in both conditions (Supplemental figure 1. A). KEGG annotations were made for
14 5 of the 14 features (Supplemental table 1) with level 4 confidence according to Schymanski
15 criteria (Schymanski et al. 2014). See supplemental excel workbook for raw data, list of all
16 pathways enriched, and the variable importance score of features analyzed using PLS-DA.

17 **Discussion**

18 The importance of vesicular amine transporters in mitigating catecholaminergic toxicity is
19 well established (Guillot and Miller 2009; Lohr and Miller 2014; Spina and Cohen 1989). Multiple
20 *in vivo* studies have demonstrated the toxic consequences of dopamine including early work that
21 demonstrated toxicity resulting from striatal injections of exogenous dopamine (Hastings et al.
22 1996). Later studies investigated the consequences of dysregulating endogenous dopamine
23 handling. Overexpression of the plasmalemmal dopamine transporter (DAT) resulted in increased
24 dopamine metabolism and nigrostriatal degeneration thought to result from an accumulation in
25 cytosolic dopamine with insufficient vesicular sequestration capabilities (Masoud et al. 2015).
26 Furthermore, introducing DAT into striatal interneurons that lack the proper machinery to
27 sequester dopamine within vesicles resulted in neurodegeneration, demonstrating the necessity of
28 proper dopaminergic handling for neuronal health (Chen et al. 2008). Mice deficient in VMAT2
29 display indices of cytosolic dopamine metabolism as well as age-dependent nigrostriatal

1 dopaminergic degeneration (Caudle et al. 2007; Taylor et al. 2014; Taylor et al. 2009). This work
2 has been replicated in *Drosophila melanogaster* deficient in VMAT expression that display fewer
3 dopaminergic neurons (Lawal et al. 2010). The purpose of this paper is to establish the *cat-*
4 *I* knockout specifically and the *C. elegans* model in general as a viable model for the role of
5 vesicular monoamine transporter as a mediator of synaptic function and neuronal vulnerability.

6 Single worm PCR and the utility of the hermaphroditic reproduction strategy of these
7 worms allows us to readily identify mutants and perform relevant crosses. Simple breeding
8 schemes allow us to create enough reporter strains to examine the effects of vesicular transporter
9 disruption for the entire *C. elegans* neural network. Western blot and immunofluorescent
10 techniques, though rarely used in *C. elegans* research, provide a valuable way of confirming the
11 presence or absence of a protein and subsequent distribution in relevant tissues that are consistent
12 with methods used in mammalian models.

13 Despite their many advantages, studies of *C. elegans* focused on the *cat-I*/VMAT protein
14 are limited (Duerr et al. 1999; Young et al. 2018). The importance of *cat-I*/VMAT in the
15 establishment of food detection, feeding rate and reproduction have been demonstrated in the past
16 and replicated by the genetic and pharmacological interventions used in this study (Duerr et al.
17 1999; Young et al. 2018). Previous cell ablation studies demonstrate that the slowing down of a
18 worm when on a food source is dependent on the presence of intact dopamine neuronal architecture
19 (Sawin et al. 2000). It is interesting that the loss of functional *cat-I*/VMAT replicates this
20 phenotype with the probable effect of system wide catecholaminergic dysfunction (Figure 3, A
21 and (Duerr et al. 1999; Young et al. 2018)). Indeed, one other group has found the addition of
22 either exogenous serotonin or pramipexole can rescue this behavior in *cat-I*/VMAT mutant strains
23 (Young et al. 2018). Although beyond the scope of this paper, further exploration of this behavior
24 may reveal synergistic or antagonistic patterns of catecholamine function. Optimal rates of
25 pharyngeal pumping and egg laying require the input of serotonin (Avery and Horvitz 1990; Trent
26 et al. 1983). The deficits observed in pharyngeal pumping and egg laying rate seen in the *cat-*
27 *I(ok411)* mutant and associated pharmacological treatment with the inhibitor reserpine suggest
28 that proper storage and trafficking of endogenous stores of this catecholamine is important for its
29 function.

1 The synaptic vesicle containing functional VMAT2 provides protection to the cell from
2 both endogenous (oxidized dopamine) and certain exogenous (MPTP) insults (Guillot and Miller
3 2009; Spina and Cohen 1989). The MPTP model of selective toxicity to dopamine neurons is well
4 established and a hallmark of mouse work in the PD field (Meredith and Rademacher 2011). The
5 *C. elegans* model has been used many times to demonstrate the selective toxicity of MPP⁺ (the
6 active metabolite of MPTP) on dopaminergic architecture, however, to our knowledge no
7 laboratory has tested the effects of MPP⁺ in worms lacking the *cat-1*/VMAT protein (Braungart et
8 al. 2004; Lu et al. 2010; Pu and Le 2008; Wang et al. 2007; Yao et al. 2011). These findings
9 suggest what we have previously found in mice, namely that levels of VMAT regulate MPTP
10 vulnerability (Lohr et al. 2016). Given the genetic tractability of *C. elegans*, the creation of *cat-*
11 *1*/VMAT overexpressing worms in future studies is certainly feasible and may facilitate future
12 studies aimed at using enhanced monoamine storage as a therapeutic intervention. It is notable,
13 but not surprising given the evolutionary development of the TEXAN antiporters that the
14 protective effects of monoamine transporters extends across both vertebrate and invertebrate
15 animal models (Figure 1; (Schuldiner et al. 1995)). This provides further confidence in the
16 utilization of *C. elegans* as a model for vesicular dysfunction related to monoamine transporter
17 efficacy.

18 *C. elegans* is gaining support as a model for toxicity testing, demonstrating conserved LD₅₀
19 values and similarities in toxic mechanisms with rodent models (Hunt 2017). Previous research
20 demonstrates a clear connection between a number of environmental pollutants and the expression
21 of VMAT2 in the nigrostriatal system of mouse models. However, mechanistic studies and full-
22 scale screens of Toxcast libraries are lacking due to the absence of an inexpensive, viable model
23 of monoaminergic vesicular dysfunction. The introduction of the COPAS large particle cytometer
24 may help provide the resolution needed to bring high throughput capability to the screening of
25 potential neurotoxic compounds. Indeed, we are currently refining assays in our lab (Figure 4, C).
26 The characterization of the *C. elegans* model of impaired vesicular storage seen in this paper is a
27 promising development.

28 Metabolomics analysis of *cat-1(ok411)* worms showed altered pathways in tyrosine
29 metabolism, possibly resulting from the vesicular mishandling of dopamine in vesicles lacking
30 *cat-1*/VMAT. Members of the pathway suggested lower dopamine levels and higher levels of

1 dopamine metabolites (supplemental Figure 3, A). Pathway analysis also suggested changes in
2 glutamate metabolism in worms lacking *cat-1*/VMAT, similar to a previous study that showed
3 altered levels of glutamate detected through NMR metabolomics in the substantia nigra of aged
4 mice expressing low levels of VMAT2 (Salek et al. 2008). MPP⁺ enters the neuron through the
5 cell membrane via dopamine transporter 1 (DAT1), thus selectively affecting dopaminergic
6 neurons (Gainetdinov et al. 1997). As such, it was telling to see differences in the metabolism of
7 tyrosine - the precursor of dopamine - in wildtype worms treated with MPP⁺. The finding of
8 differences in tryptophan metabolism is more curious considering that MPP⁺ has low affinity for
9 the plasma membrane transporter in serotonin neurons. However, cellular crisis in dopaminergic
10 cells could lead to alterations in tryptophan metabolism reflecting the interdependence of both
11 amines. In fact, these changes in tryptophan metabolism might represent a more generalized
12 response to the increased proteotoxicity involved in cellular degeneration (van der Goot et al.
13 2012). Likewise, changes in the pentose glucuronate interconversion pathway may also be
14 indicative of a mitochondrial crisis (Mullarky and Cantley 2015). Features that are altered in both
15 types of dopaminergic neuronal perturbations could provide information on metabolic pathways
16 that are of interest to neuronal damage and degeneration. While we were able to discover 14
17 features overlapping between the two conditions, we did not have sufficient power to determine
18 pathways of interest that were altered between the two conditions. Future studies could use
19 spectral fragmentation to identify the chemical structure of these 14 features. Further, chemical
20 entities of metabolic relevance can be studied by using an appropriate mutant worm strain or by
21 employing biochemical assays.

22 High resolution mass spectrometry-based metabolomics has been used in several *C.*
23 *elegans* studies (Edison et al. 2015; Hastings et al. 2017; Mor 2020; Witting et al. 2018). The
24 comprehensive molecular understanding of the nematode model makes it amenable to
25 characterizing systemic biochemistry and perturbations to global metabolism as a result of genetic,
26 environmental and toxicological perturbations. Our initial findings suggest that the use of this
27 technique could add to the systems-level evaluation of toxicity in this model. This information
28 may provide further avenues of exploration when looking at metabolic effects of
29 neurodegeneration. In fact, systems-wide approaches to studying common neurodegenerative
30 diseases like PD are recommended by the variety of circuitry affected (Taylor et al. 2014; Taylor
31 et al. 2011; Taylor et al. 2009). For example, in the few cases of dopamine-serotonin transport

1 disease, a disease related to a mutant allele in VMAT2 known as P387L, patients exhibit
2 developmental delay, parkinsonism, sleep disturbances, mood disorders and a host of issues related
3 to autonomic dysfunction (Rath et al. 2017). The application of high resolution mass spectrometry
4 allows us to identify metabolic dysfunction in an untargeted manner. The unbiased nature of this
5 approach has the capability of providing links to associated human diseases previously
6 unrecognized. By replicating the dysfunction of monoamine transport and storage in *C. elegans*
7 we may yet uncover similar metabolic signatures of relevant disease in humans. Our group has
8 recently reported that the same high resolution mass spectrometry-based metabolomic platform
9 can identify disease-specific alterations in plasma from patients with and without Alzheimer's
10 disease (Niedzwiecki et al. 2019; Vardarajan et al. 2020). demonstrating the utility of the approach
11 from worms to humans. We expect *C. elegans* will play an important role in future exposome-
12 level studies by providing a laboratory-based validation of observed metabolomic alterations in
13 human disease (Vermeulen et al. 2020). Overlap in common metabolic signatures could
14 potentially be useful for treatment and early diagnosis in neurodegenerative diseases and a number
15 of addiction and mood disorders.

16 In summary, our results demonstrate the evolutionary-conserved nature of monoamine
17 function in *C. elegans* and further suggest that high-resolution mass spectrometry-based
18 metabolomics can be used in this model to study environmental and genetic contributors to
19 complex human disease.

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1 Figures and Tables

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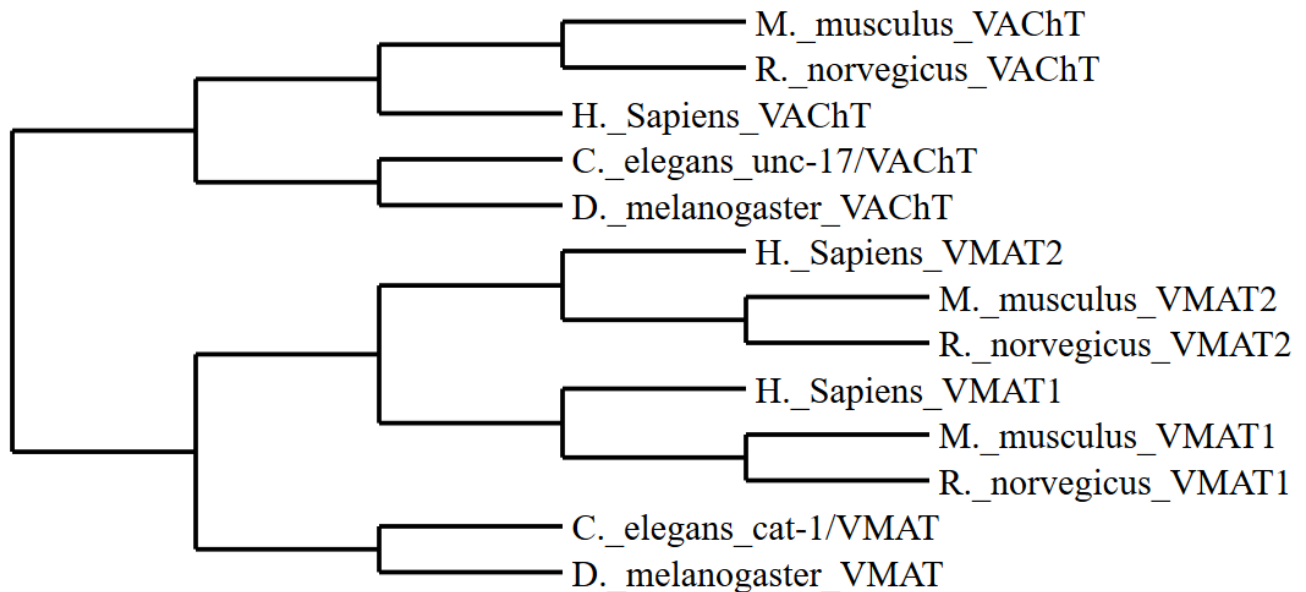


Figure 1. Cladogram representing species specific relationships amongst vesicular amine transporters

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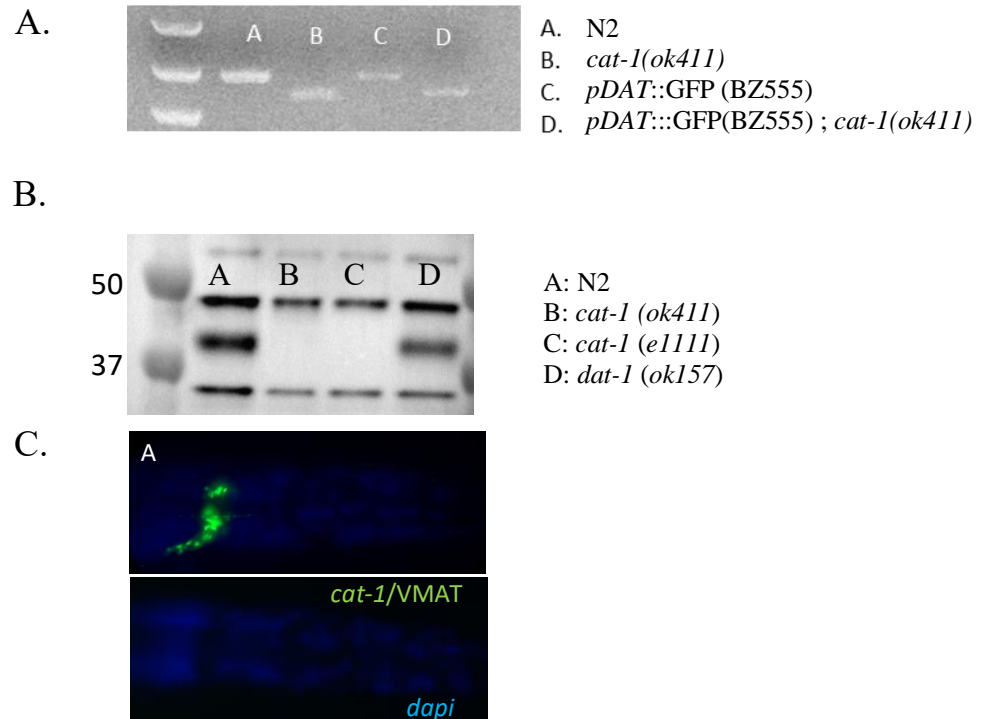


Figure 2. The *cat-1(ok411)* strain is deficient in the production of *cat-1/VMAT* protein. **A)** Primers specific for *cat-1* reveal a 400 bp deletion in the *cat-1(ok411)* mutant strain **B)** The strain *cat-1(ok411)* does not produce *cat-1/VMAT* protein. **C)** The *cat-1(ok411)* strain shows no evidence of *cat-1/VMAT* immunoreactivity (DAPI staining in blue showing outline of worm).

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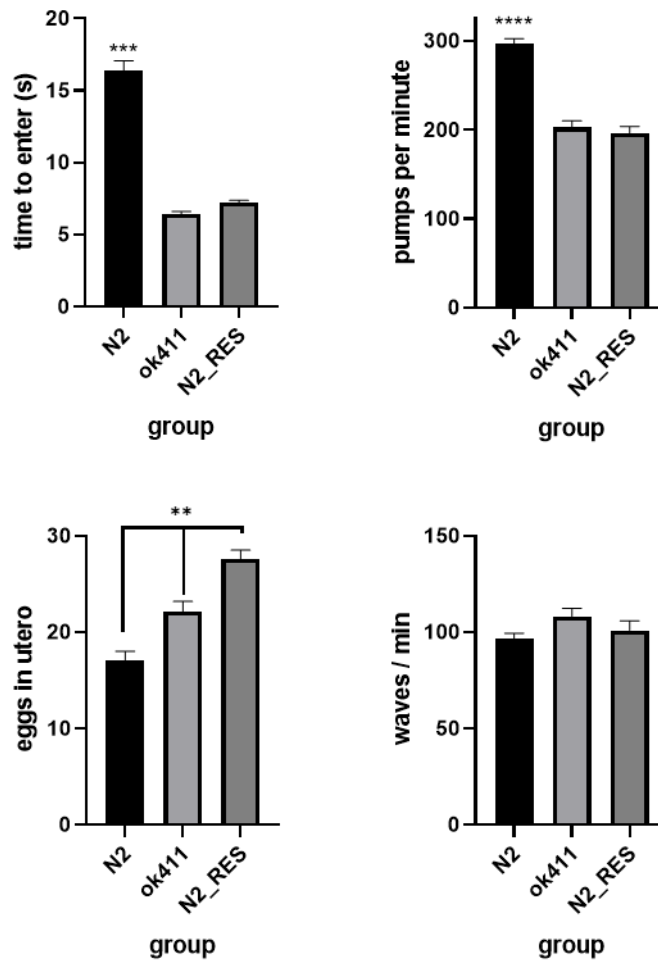


Figure 3. The loss of *cat-1*/VMAT protein results in altered monoaminergic behaviors. **A)** The grazing response is deficient in the *cat-1* (*ok411*) mutant strain and N2 worms treated with reserpine. **B)** *cat-1* (*ok411*) worms and N2 worms treated with reserpine have impaired pharyngeal pumping compared to N2. **C)** *cat-1* (*ok411*) and N2 worms treated with reserpine are deficient in egg laying (more eggs in utero). **D)** There is no difference in wave initiation between N2 and the *cat-1* (*ok411*) mutant. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$ vs. all other groups, **** $p < .0001$ vs. all other groups

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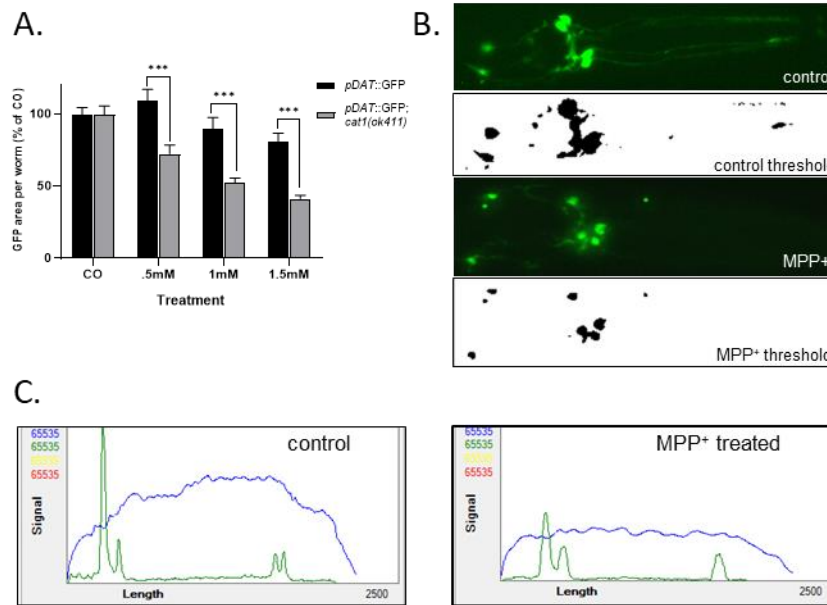


Figure 4. Dopamine neurons lacking the *cat-1*/VMAT transporter are more susceptible to MPP⁺ induced neurodegeneration. Image analysis using automated thresholding shows increased sensitivity of the *cat-1*/VMAT mutant *ok411* to MPP⁺ via reduced fluorescent area of dopamine neurons (A & B). C. Representative profile graph using the COPAS large particle flow cytometer. GFP fluorescence driven by the *dat-1* promoter. *** $p < .0001$

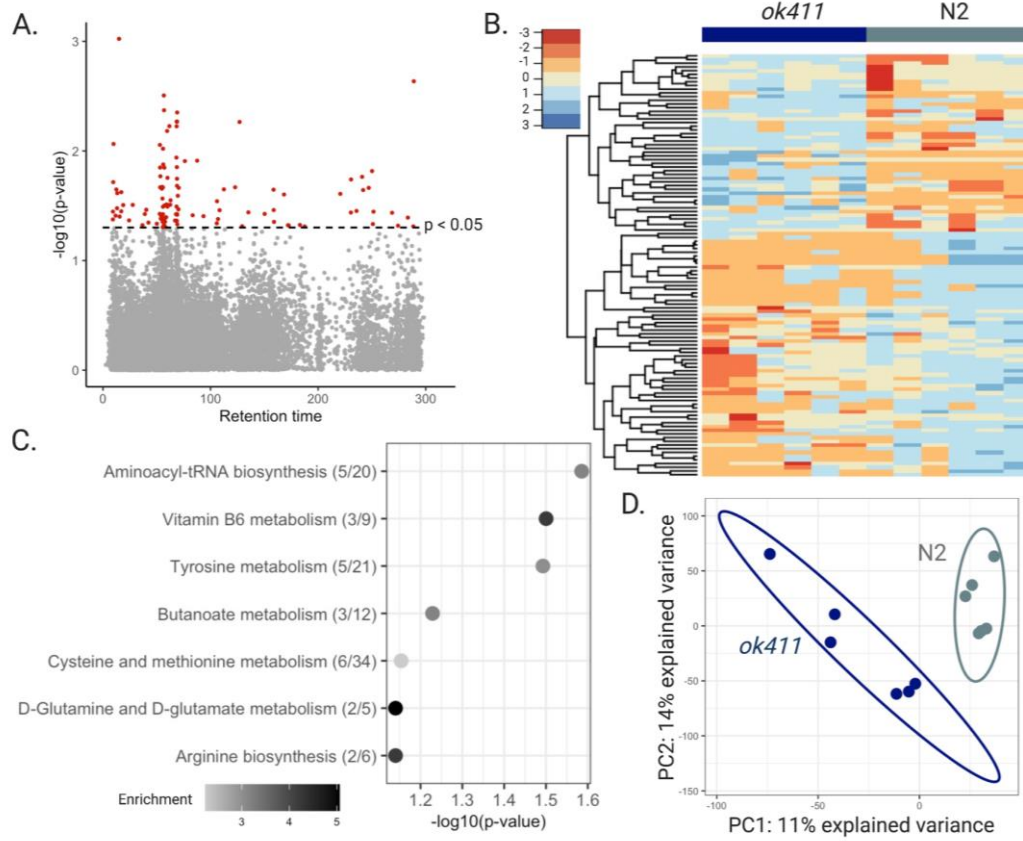


Figure 5. The *cat-1(ok411)* strain shows patterns of altered metabolism. **A)** Manhattan plot shows features that were different with $p < 0.05$ (red) in *cat-1(ok411)* mutants compared to wild type N2 worms, **B)** Hierarchical clustering of features associated with the *cat-1(ok411)* mutant with $p < 0.05$, **C)** Top pathways altered (fisher exact test p -value < 0.1) in *cat-1(ok411)* worms, analyzed using the Mummichog software. The overlap size of the pathway is indicated in parentheses (number of significant hits/pathway size). The color of the bubbles represent enrichment, calculated as the quotient of total number of hits in the pathway divided by expected number of hits. **D)** Partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) comparing *cat-1(ok411)* mutants to wild type N2 worms.

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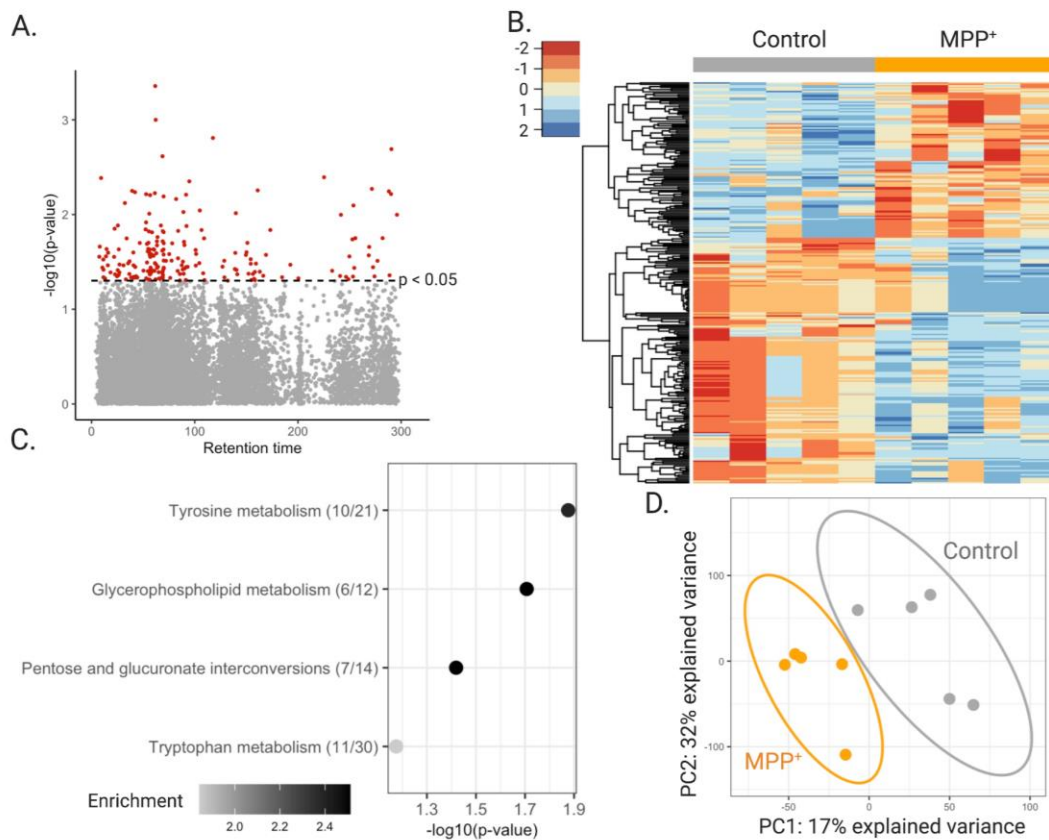


Figure 6. Worms treated with MPP⁺ show patterns of altered metabolism. **A)** Manhattan plot shows features that were different with $p < 0.05$ (red) N2 worms treated with MPP⁺ compared to untreated N2 worms, **B)** Hierarchical clustering of features associated with treatment with $p < 0.05$, **C)** Top pathways altered (fisher's exact test $p\text{-value} < 0.1$) in N2 worms treated with 1mM MPP⁺, analyzed using the Mummichog software. The overlap size of the pathway is indicated in parentheses (number of significant hits/pathway size). The color of the bubbles represent enrichment, calculated as the quotient of total number of hits in the pathway divided by expected number of hits, **D)** Partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) comparing N2 worms with N2 worms treated with 1mM MPP⁺.

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