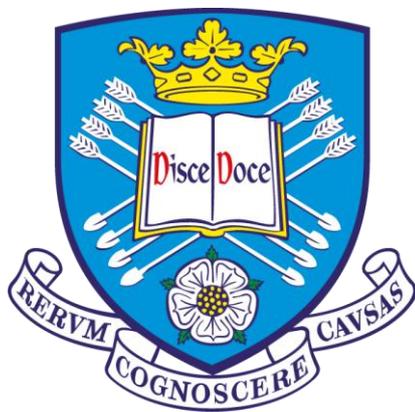


A Zebrafish Model of Ataxia Telangiectasia

by

Mirinda Jane Tattan

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The
University
Of
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Abstract

Ataxia-Telangiectasia is a life-limiting, neurodegenerative disorder, phenotypically characterised by ataxia, infertility, increased sensitivity to ionising radiation, and an increased incidence of cancers, particularly lymphomas. AT is caused by recessively inherited loss of function mutations in the ATM gene, the product of which primarily functions as a protein kinase that is activated in response to DNA damage. Activated ATM initiates DNA repair, or directs the cell towards apoptosis. While there are currently a number of rodent models that exhibit many of the disease phenotypes, they are not suitable for high throughput screening studies. Therefore, we propose a zebrafish model. Using CRISPR/Cas9, zebrafish with a 5 bp deletion in exon 6 of the ATM gene have been generated (ATM^{sh477}). This results in a frameshift mutation, leading to a predicted premature stop codon. ATM^{sh477} homozygous zebrafish are viable, and have no obvious behavioural abnormalities at the larval, juvenile or adult stages. Clutches of these $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish have abnormal sex ratios with all observed ATM null fish being male. These ATM^{sh477} males are also infertile, a key phenotype shared with AT patients and rodent models. Investigations into this infertility reveal that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish have atypical testes that contain primarily immature spermatogenic cells. Histological sections of the testes also show them to be neoplastic, containing irregular growth of Sertoli cells (support cells) and disorganisation of the seminiferous tubules. However, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit no increased sensitivity to ionising radiation or apparent deficiency in their DNA damage response.

Declaration

I, Mirinda Jane Tattan, confirm that this thesis is my own work and that this work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other university. Where work has been performed in collaboration or with the help of someone, it is stated in the text. In short and for clarification;

- Generation of CRIPSR/Cas9 ATM^{sh477} zebrafish was carried out by Dr Ringaile Zaksauskaite (Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology), under the supervision of Professor Sherif El-Khamisy (Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology) and Dr Freek van Eeden (Department of Biomedical Science).
- Quantification of γ H₂AX foci from whole mount immunofluorescence of zebrafish larvae with a custom script was carried out by Dr Victor Alfred (Sheffield Institute of Translational Neuroscience).
- Identification of the neoplasia cell type in histological sections of adult zebrafish testes was carried out in collaboration with Dr Clare Muir (Department of Infection, Immunity & Cardiovascular Disease) and Dr Jonathan Griffin (Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology).

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to memory of my late mother, Antoinette Tattan. Her unwavering support and enthusiasm for my education throughout my whole life cannot be overstated. This would have made her proud.

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Next I would like to thank and recognise Dr Ringaile Zaksauskaite who made the CRISPR/Cas9 ATM^{sh477} model during her PhD. Without her previous work, the work characterising a zebrafish model of AT contained in this thesis would not be as advanced.

This project would not have been as successful without the help of a number of people within the university. I was very fortunate to have the input and expertise of both Professor Kurt De Vos and Professor Sherif El-Khamisy, whose knowledge, time and encouragement was given freely. In addition, I would like to convey my thanks to Dr Victor Alfred, Dr Clare Muir and Dr Jonathan Griffin for their technical expertise. I would also like to give a mention to Grierson and De Vos lab groups and all the people who have come and gone in them over the years. Each and every one of you have helped in the completion of this project in some way.

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List of Abbreviations

(Alphabetical Order)

ADCAN	Cerebellar Ataxia, Deafness, and Narcolepsy, Autosomal Dominant
AFP	alpha-fetoprotein
ASPA	Animals Scientific Procedures Act
AST	aspartate aminotransferase
AT	Ataxia Telangiectasia
AT-LD	Ataxia Telangiectasia Like Disorder
ALS	Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
ATM	Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated
ATMi	Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated inhibitor
AOA	Ataxia-oculomotor Apraxia
ATR	Ataxia Telangiectasia and Rad3 related
bp	base pair
CA	Cerebellar Ataxia
CAMRQ	Cerebellar Ataxia, Mental Retardation, and Disequilibrium Syndrome
CLN2	classic late infantile neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis
CPT	Camptothecin
CSR	class switching recombination
DAB	3,3'-diaminobenzidine
DDR	DNA Damage Repair
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DNA-PKcs	DNA-dependent Protein Kinase, catalytic subunit
dpf	days post fertilisation
DPRLA	Dentatorubral-Pallidoluysian Atrophy
ds	Double Strand
EA	Episodic Ataxia
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
eIF-4E	Eukaryotic Initiation Factor 4E
FAT	FRAP-ATM-TRRAP
FFPE	formalin fixed paraffin embedded
FLAP	FATC, Lst8-binding element (LBE) equivalent region, Activation loop, and the PRD

FLAP-BE	FLAP- Binding Element
FSH	follicle stimulating hormone
FTLD	Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration
GC	genetic compensation
GGT	gamma-glutamyl-transferase
HCA	Hereditary Cerebellar Ataxias
H&E	Haematoxylin and eosin
HEAT	Huntingtin, elongation factor 3, A subunit of protein phosphatase 2A and TOR1
hpf	hours post fertilisation
HR	homologous recombination
HRE	hypoxia-response elements
ILGF-I	Insulin and insulin-like growth factor-I
ILGR-1R	insulin-like growth factor-I receptor
IP	immunoprecipitation assay
IR	ionising radiation
KD	knockdown
KI	knock in
KinD	Kinase dead
KO	knockout
Ig	Immunoglobulin
LKB1	liver kinase B1 protein
LH	luteinising hormone
MO	morpholino
MRI	Magnetic resonance imaging
mTOR	mammalian Target of Rapamycin
mTORC1	mTOR complex 1
NEB	New Engand Biolabs®
NHEJ	nonhomologous end joining
NMD	nonsense mediated degradation
PC	Purkinje cells
PIKK	phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-related kinase
PINK1	PTEN-induced putative kinase 1
PCOS	polycystic ovarian syndrome
PRD	PIKK regulatory domain

PVDF	Polyvinylidene difluoride
REDD1	regulated in development and DDR 1
Rheb	Ras homolog enriched in brain
RIPA	Radioimmunoprecipitation assay
ROS	Reactive Oxygen Species
RNS	reactive nitrogen species
SASP	senescence-associated secretory phenotype
SCAs	Spinocerebellar Ataxias
SPAX	Spastic Ataxia, Autosomal Dominant
ss	single strand
SSA	single-strand annealing
STING	stimulator of interferon genes
TAN	Tel1, ATM, N terminus
TOP1	Topoisomerase 1
TOPcc	Topoisomerase cleavage complex
TRAP	Transformation/Transcription Domain-Associated Protein
TSC2	Tuberous Sclerosis 2
U_{Crit}	critical swimming velocity
V(D)J	variability, diversity, and joining
XLF	XRCC4-like factor
ZEG	Zebrafish Embryonic Genotyper
ZFHX3/ATBF1	Zinc Finger Homeobox 3/ (AT-motif binding factor 1
4EBP-1	eIF-4E-binding protein 1

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Hereditary Cerebellar Ataxias

Cerebellar ataxia (CA) is a term used to describe loss of co-ordination, uncontrolled and uncoordinated movements, gait instability, and jerky eye movements, and it is the result of damage to the cerebellum and its connections. Hereditary Cerebellar Ataxias (HCAs) are a group of clinically and genetically diverse diseases where mutations in ~75 genes have been described as the causative factor of cerebellar atrophy (**table 1.1 or see appendix 1.1 for an expanded version**) (Jayadev and Bird, 2013).

HCAs are inherited as autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive, X-linked, mitochondrial, episodic, and sporadic, and can be congenital. Reported mutations include missense, nonsense, deletions and insertions, splice site mutations, and repeat expansions. Genes with mutations that are known to cause CA are summarised in **table 1.1**. While most ataxia genes are functionally distinct, they operate in several shared pathways, principally DNA repair, ion channels, oxidative stress, transcriptional regulation, and cellular trafficking (**see table 1.2 or see appendix 1.1 for an expanded version**). The disruption of these shared pathways tends to make diagnoses difficult, as mutations in different genes can give rise to a similar phenotype.

The main pathophysiological hallmark of HCAs is the degeneration and death of cerebellar Purkinje cells (PCs) and to some degree the granule layer. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) demonstrates atrophy of the cerebellum, sometimes even before the onset of neurological symptoms in some Spinocerebellar Ataxias (SCAs) (Dohlinger et al., 2008, Schulz et al., 2010a). Until recently, there was little epistemological foundation for the exact cause of cell death in this heterogeneous group of diseases, and the mechanisms are only now beginning to be decoded. It is reasonable to assume that the post mitotic nature of cerebellar neurons makes them a vulnerable target for disease.

However, how genes that function in seemingly unrelated pathways all result in HCA is puzzling, but it does appear that these pathways are remarkably selective for the nervous system and in particular for PCs

Table 1.1 Genetic classification of Cerebellar Ataxias

Mutation Type	Genes	Ataxia Disorders
<i>PolyQ Disorders</i>	<i>Ataxin-1</i>	SCA1 ¹
	<i>Ataxin-2</i>	SCA2
	<i>Ataxin-3</i> ,	SCA3
	<i>CACNA1A</i>	SCA6
	<i>Ataxin-7</i>	SCA7
	<i>TATA-binding protein</i>	SCA17
	<i>Atrophin-1</i>	DRPLA ²
<i>Intronic Repeats</i>	<i>Ataxin-10</i>	SCA10
	<i>PP2A*</i>	SCA12
	<i>BEAN</i>	SCA31
	<i>NOP56</i>	SCA36
	<i>FXN</i>	Friedreich's Ataxia
<i>Dominantly Inherited Ataxias with Conventional Mutations</i>	<i>SPTBN2</i>	SCA5
	<i>TTBK2</i>	SCA11
	<i>KCNC3</i>	SCA13
	<i>PRKCG</i>	SCA14
	<i>ITPR1</i>	SCA15
	<i>IFRD1</i>	SCA18
	<i>KCND3</i>	SCA19/SCA22
	<i>TMEM240</i>	SCA21
	<i>PDYN</i>	SCA23
	<i>EEF2</i>	SCA26
	<i>FGF14</i>	SCA27
	<i>AFG3L2</i>	SCA28
	<i>ELOVL4</i>	SCA34
	<i>TGM6</i>	SCA35
	<i>CCDC88C</i>	SCA40
	<i>CACNA1G</i>	SCA42
	<i>DNMT1</i>	ADCAN ³
	<i>KCNA1</i>	EA1 ⁴
	<i>CACNA1A</i>	EA2
	<i>CACNB4</i>	EA5
	<i>SLC1A3</i>	EA6
	<i>VAMP1</i>	SPAX1 ⁵
	<i>Unknown</i>	SPAX7
<i>Recessively Inherited Ataxias with Conventional Mutations</i>	<i>APTX</i>	AOA1 ⁶
	<i>SETX</i>	AOA2
	<i>PIK3R5</i>	AOA3
	<i>PNKP</i>	AOA4
	<i>VLDLR</i>	CAMRQ1 ⁷
	<i>WDR81</i>	CAMRQ2
	<i>CA8</i>	CAMRQ3
	<i>ATP8A2</i>	CMARQ4
	<i>PMPCA</i>	SCAR2 ⁸
	<i>Unknown</i>	SCAR3
	<i>TPP1</i>	SCAR7
	<i>SYNE1</i>	SCAR8
	<i>ADCK3</i>	SCAR9
	<i>ANO10</i>	SCAR10
	<i>SYT14</i>	SCAR11
	<i>WWOX</i>	SCAR12

<i>SPTBN2</i>	SCAR14
<i>KIAA0226</i>	SCAR15
<i>STUB1</i>	SCAR16
<i>CWF19L1</i>	SCAR17
<i>GRID2</i>	SCAR18
<i>SLC9A1</i>	SCAR19
<i>SNX14</i>	SCAR20
<i>SCYL1</i>	SCAR21
<i>VWA3B</i>	SCAR22
<i>TDP2</i>	SCAR23
<i>UBA5</i>	SCAR24
<i>ATM</i>	Ataxia-Telangiectasia
<i>MRE11A</i>	Ataxia-Telangiectasia-Like Disorder-1
<i>SIL1</i>	Marinesco-Sjogren Syndrome
<i>KIF1C</i>	SPAX2
<i>MARS2</i>	SPAX3
<i>MTPAP</i>	SPAX4
<i>AFG3L2</i>	SPAX5
<i>SACS</i>	SPAX6
<i>Tdp1</i>	SCAN1
<i>DAGLA</i>	SCA20
<i>Unknown</i>	SCA30
<i>Unknown</i>	SCA32

A yet undefined

¹Spinocerebellar Ataxia

²Dentatorubral-Pallidoluysian Atrophy

³Cerebellar Ataxia, Deafness, and Narcolepsy, Autosomal Dominant

⁴Episodic Ataxia

⁵Spastic Ataxia, Autosomal Dominant

⁶Ataxia-oculomotor Apraxia

⁷ Cerebellar Ataxia, Mental Retardation, and Disequilibrium Syndrome

* Neuronal specific subunit of the protein phosphatase

Table 1.2 Common Pathways of Neurodegeneration in HCAs

<i>Pathway currently indicated by the literature</i>	<i>Ataxia</i>	<i>Gene</i>
<i>DNA Damage</i>	AT AT-LD SCA3 AOA1 AOA2 AOA4 SCAR17 SCAR22 SCAR23	ATM MRE11A Ataxin-3 APTX SETX PNKP CWF19L1 VWA3B TDP2
<i>Genomic Instability</i>	SCA1 AT AT-LD SCA3 SCA7	Ataxin-1 ATM MRE11A Ataxin-3 Ataxin-7
<i>Protein Aggregation</i>	FA SCA1 SCA2 SCA3 SCA6 SCA7 SCA17 DRPLA	FXN Ataxin-1 Ataxin-2 Ataxin-3 CACNA1A Ataxin-7 TATA- binding protein Atrophin-1
<i>Transcriptional/Translational Dysregulation</i>	SCA1 SCA7 SCA8 SCA10 SCA17 SCA26 SCA28 SCA31 SCA36 DRPLA AOA2 SCAR17 SPAX3 SPAX4	Ataxin-1 Ataxin-7 Ataxin-8 ATXN-10 TATA- binding protein EEF2 AFG3L2 BEAN NOP56 Atrophin-1 SETX CWF19L1 MARS2 MTPAP
<i>Gain of function by RNA Foci</i>	SCA3 SCA8 SCA10 SCA12 SCA31 SCA36 FA	Ataxin-3 Ataxin-8 ATXN-10 PP2A BEAN NOP56 FXN
<i>Primary Channelopathies *</i>	CAMRQ3 CAMRQ4 EA1 EA2 EA5 EA6 SCA6 SCA13 SCA15 SCA19 SCA42	CA8 ATP8A2 KCNA1 CACNA1A CACNB4 SLC1A3 CACNA1A KCNC3 TPR1 KCND3 CACNA1G
<i>Secondary Channelopathies **</i>	SCA1 SCA2 SCA3 SCA6 CAMRQ3	Ataxin-1 Ataxin-2 Ataxin-3 CACNA1A CA8

Ataxias are listed in more than one pathway, as the literature suggests that there may be multiple pathways responsible for cerebellar atrophy. *Conditions where there is a mutation in a gene that directly plays a role in the proper functioning of ligand and ion gated channels. **Aggregation of PolyQ proteins co-op components involved in proper functioning of ligand and ion gated channels into their aggregates.

1.1.2 DNA Damage Repair Ataxias

DNA damage is a common theme in many HCA disorders. HCAs such as AT, AT-LD, SCA3, AOA1, AOA2, AOA4, SCAR17, SCAR22, and SCAR23 (**see appendix 1.1**) are caused by mutations in DNA damage repair (DDR) genes. Compromised DDR is thought to be at least partially responsible for pathogenesis in these cases (Savitsky et al., 1995, Zhang et al., 1997, Banin et al., 1998, Ledesma et al., 2009, Gomez-Herreros et al., 2014, Kawarai et al., 2016, Jilani et al., 1999, Stewart et al., 1999). Previously, it was suspected that unrepaired DNA damage may be a relevant factor in the progression of HCAs, but it was not until the causative gene for AT was identified and characterised that a paradigm shift occurred (Gatti et al., 1988, Savitsky et al., 1995). Since this discovery, defective DDR has been implicated in a growing number of neurodegenerative diseases (Jeppesen et al., 2011).

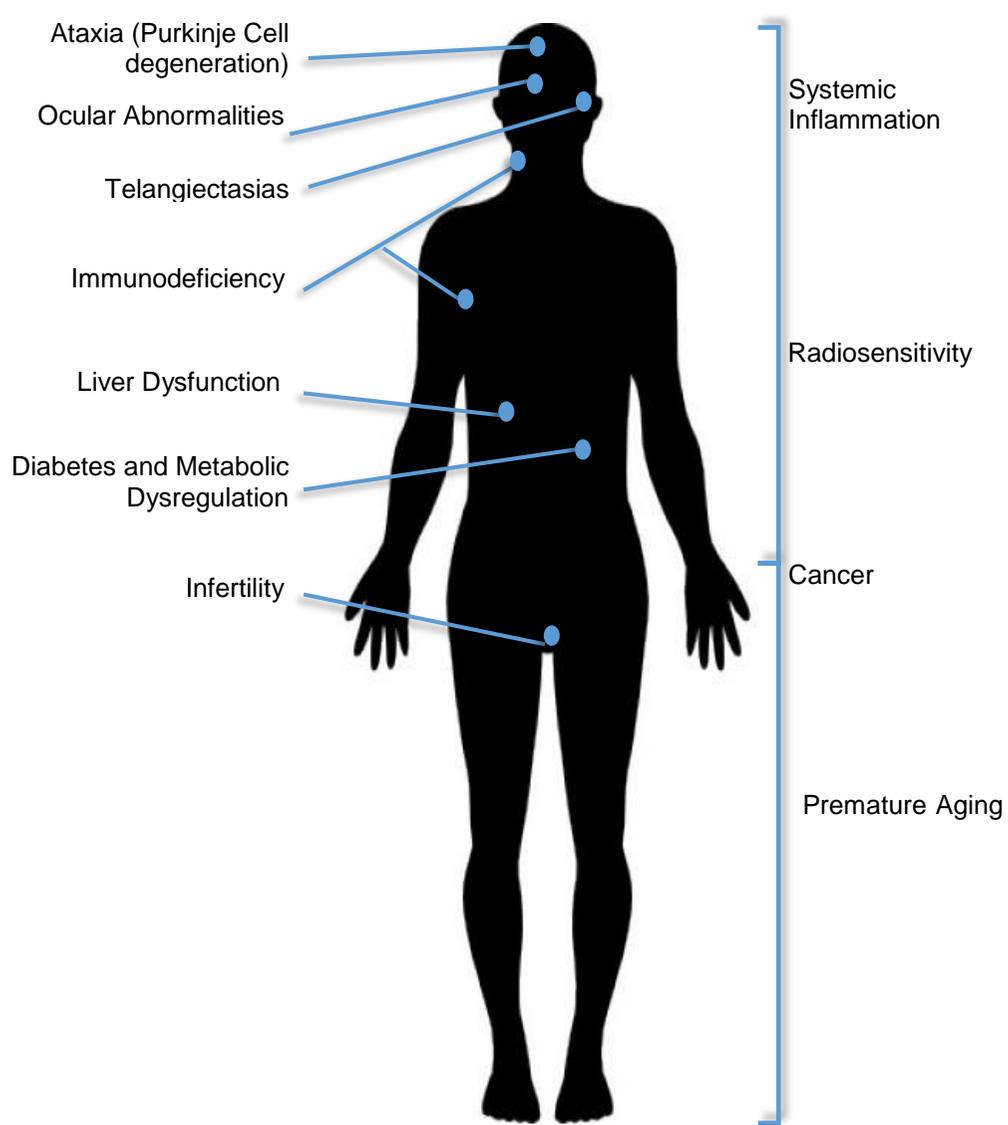
1.2 Ataxia Telangiectasia Overview

Ataxia Telangiectasia (AT) (OMIM#[208900](#)) is a life limiting, autosomal recessive cerebellar ataxia. It is caused by homozygous or compound heterozygous loss of function mutations in the *Ataxia Telangiectasia mutated (ATM)* gene (OMIM#[607585](#)). Functional mutations in the gene result in a broad and variant phenotype, of which the primary presentations (in addition to cerebellar ataxia) include telangiectasias, infertility, immunodeficiency, and increased incidence of cancer. These are outlined in **figure 1.1**.

The neurological effects are the first manifestation of the disease, with patients generally presenting at approximately 3 years old with features of progressive cerebellar ataxia, such as deficiency in the extrapyramidal system, and oculomotor defects such as nystagmus and saccades (Boder and Sedgewick, 1958). Patients later develop slurred speech and peripheral neuropathy, and are commonly wheelchair bound by 10 years old. The neurological symptoms are caused by the degeneration of PCs and progressive atrophy of the cerebellum (Tavani et al., 2003, Shaikh et al., 2013). Telangiectasias also occur in early childhood, and their appearance aids in the differential diagnosis to distinguish AT from other HCAs before genetic testing

has occurred. AT tends to be fatal in approximately the third decade of life, when patients predominantly succumb to chronic respiratory infections and malignancies (van Os et al., 2017b, Micol et al., 2011b). However, the lifespan of AT sufferers greatly depends on the level of clinical care and management of symptoms (Crawford et al., 2006).

AT is considered a relatively rare disease, with its worldwide incidence difficult to determine. It is estimated to have a prevalence of 1-1.6: 400,000 live births in France and Norway but its incidence appears to be highly dependent on founder effects, with the incidence in Manitoba Canada 20: 400,000 and Hedmark, Norway estimated to be as high as 40: 400,000 (Anheim et al., 2010, Campbell et al., 2003, Erichsen et al., 2009, Salman et al., 2013). It is estimated that 2.8% of the USA population are pathogenic mutation carriers and the incidence appears to be higher in ethnic populations from India and Iran, where consanguinity is more widespread (Swift et al., 1986, Erichsen et al., 2009).



Symptoms	Sources
<i>Ataxia</i>	<i>(Woods and Taylor, 1992, Gatti and Vinters, 1985)</i>
<i>Telangiectasia</i>	<i>(Gatti et al., 1991, Maserati et al., 1988, Schoenaker et al., 2017, Navratil et al., 2015, Kamiya et al., 2001, Boder and Sedgwick, 1958, Greenberger et al., 2013)</i>
<i>Diabetes and Metabolic Dysregulation</i>	<i>(Paulino et al., 2015, Sholman and Swift, 1972, Morrell et al., 1986, Mlakar and Marc, 2013, Yang et al., 2011, Shepherd et al., 1996, Connelly et al., 2016, Bar et al., 1978)</i>
<i>Liver Dysfunction</i>	<i>(Waldmann and McIntire, 1972, Ishiguro et al., 2010, Braga-Neto et al., 2010)</i>
<i>Infertility</i>	<i>(Gordon and Lamb, 2007, Liyanage et al., 1997, Barlow et al., 1996, Bolcun-Filas et al., 2014, Miller and Chatten, 1967, Zadik et al., 1978)</i>
<i>Immunodeficiency</i>	<i>(Gatti et al., 1991, Carbonari et al., 1990, Carney et al., 2012, Exley et al., 2011)</i>
<i>Cancer</i>	<i>Reviewed (Choi et al., 2016, Cremona and Behrens, 2014)</i>
<i>Ocular Abnormalities</i>	<i>(Mariani et al., 2017, Lewis and Crawford, 1998, Riise et al., 2007)</i>
<i>Radiosensitivity</i>	<i>(Gilad et al., 1998, Pagani et al., 2002, Saunders-Pullman et al., 2012)</i>
<i>Premature aging</i>	<i>(Carney et al., 2012, Exley et al., 2011, Weiss et al., 2016, Reed et al., 1966)</i>

Figure 1.1 Major symptoms associated with Ataxia Telangiectasia

1.2.1 Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated (ATM) Gene and Protein

Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated (ATM) is a member of the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-related kinase (PIKK) family, which also includes *ATR (Ataxia Telangiectasia and Rad3 related)* and *DNA-PKcs (DNA-dependent Protein Kinase, catalytic subunit)* which all function in the DNA damage response (DDR). In addition to these three PIKKs, humans have three others, *mTOR (mammalian Target of Rapamycin)*, *SMG1* and *TRRAP (Transformation/Transcription Domain-Associated Protein)*, where *mTOR* functions in cell growth and metabolism, *SMG1* in regulation of nonsense mediated decay of mRNA, and *TRRAP* in chromatin remodelling during transcription (Lovejoy and Cortez, 2009). This family are a group of large, multifunctional, structurally related proteins that share three domains; a kinase domain, which, is sandwiched between a FAT and a FAT C-terminal (FATC) domain (Perry and Kleckner, 2003) **(see fig 1.2)**. These proteins are all considered master regulators of the cellular stress response as well as regulators of cell growth and proliferation (Abraham, 1996, Yue et al., 2020).

ATM is a 350 KDa serine/threonine protein kinase located on (Gatti et al., 1988), and is considered an essential signal transducer in the DDR (Savitsky et al., 1995, Sanal et al., 1990, Matsuda et al., 1996). ATM is a constitutively expressed protein and has been found to localise to the nucleus, cytosol, and mitochondria, which is consistent with known ATM substrates (Mu et al., 2007, Matsuoka et al., 2007). ATM acts as a homeostatic master regulator and functional component of many cellular and developmental processes, including, but not limited to, oxidative stress, meiotic recombination, insulin signalling, cell cycle control, telomere maintenance, and genomic stability. However, it is principally regarded as an essential regulator of the DDR (Brown et al., 1997b, Barlow et al., 2000, Watters et al., 1999, Oka and Takashima, 1998, Valentin-Vega et al., 2012, Boehrs et al., 2007, Matsuoka et al., 2007, Shiloh and Ziv, 2013).

1.2.2 ATM Structure, Functional Domains and Activation in Response to Double Stranded DNA damage

Catalytically inactive ATM exists as a dimer, and canonically in the DDR upon activation, becomes a monomer (Bakkenist and Kastan, 2003). The dimerization of the protein is autoinhibitory, as many ATM substrate binding sites are located well within the peptide folds of the dimer (Lau et al., 2016). Like other members of the PIKK family, ATM has three main C terminal domains; a kinase domain sandwiched between a FAT and FATC domain. Along with the other PIKK family members, ATM contains a repeated N terminal HEAT motif and uniquely, it contains a far N terminal TAN domain (Perry and Kleckner, 2003, Seidel et al., 2008) (**figure 1.2 a**).

The FAT and FATC domains are situated either side of the kinase domain and they interact to ensure proper folding and inhibition of the kinase domain (Bosotti et al., 2000) (**figure 1.2**). Additionally, serine 1981 found in the FAT domain acts as a marker for monomeric active ATM and it is thought that phosphorylation of this site prevents the protein returning to the dimeric inactive conformation (Bakkenist and Kastan, 2003). The N terminal of the protein is comprised mainly of HEAT (Huntingtin, elongation factor 3, A subunit of protein phosphatase 2A and TOR1) repeats (Andrade and Bork, 1995), which constitute over 50% of the protein (**figure 1.2 a**) (Perry and Kleckner, 2003). The extreme N terminus of the ATM protein contains the TAN (Tel1, ATM, N terminus) domain that has been experimentally shown to function in telomere length maintenance and DNA damage repair through chromatin association (Seidel et al., 2008). It characteristically contains a highly conserved (L/V/I)XXX(R/K)XX(E/D)RXXX(L/V/I) motif as shown in **figure 1.2 a**, and residues 2-40 are crucial for its telomere length maintenance function. Furthermore, the N-terminus of the ATM protein is critical for its proper function as it contains two NLSs (Nuclear Localisation Sequences), made up of clusters of basic amino acids, ²³RKK²⁵ and ³⁸⁵KRKK³⁸⁸, which are essential for importation of ATM into the nucleus to the site of DNA damage (Young et al., 2005).

Within the closed dimer, the two ATM molecules interact through the FAT domains. In the closed conformation, they inhibit each other when a FLAP motif (FATC, Lst8-binding element (LBE) equivalent region, Activation loop, and the

PRD) in the FAT domain of one molecule is pressed against and obscures the active site of its own protein by a FLAP-BE (FLAP- Binding Element) of the opposite ATM molecule (**figure 1.2 b**) (Imseng et al., 2018, Baretić et al., 2017). In the open conformation, the FLAP-BE rotates outward at a 24° angle, removing the constraints on the PRD (PIKK regulatory domain) region of the opposite molecule's FLAP motif and allowing greater access to the active site (Baretić et al., 2017). Recently, it has been suggested that the ATM dimer is dynamic and moves between a closed and an open conformation. The closed conformation is catalytically inactive while the open conformation, although not considered truly 'active' ATM, has some kinase activity (Baretić et al., 2017).

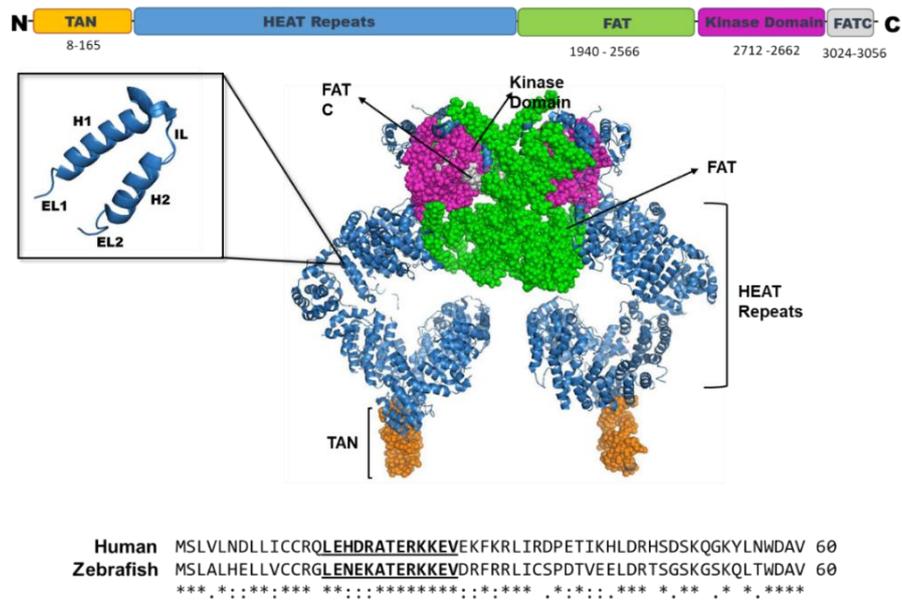
Several different pathways activating ATM have been described, and these seem to be context dependent. Canonically, ATM is activated in response to double strand DNA (dsDNA) damage (Myers and Cortez, 2006, Zhao et al., 2020b, Sakasai et al., 2010, Canman et al., 1998, Banin et al., 1998, Brown et al., 1997b). In this context, ATM in its inactive state exists as a dimer, and is activated by autophosphorylation at S367, S1893, S1981 and S2996, and dissociates into a monomer (So et al., 2010, Kozlov et al., 2003, Kozlov et al., 2006, Du et al., 2014, Baretić et al., 2017, Bakkenist and Kastan, 2003, Kozlov et al., 2011). While there is some evidence to suggest that ATM is activated to a small extent directly through DNA damage in a dose dependent manner, it is largely activated through the DNA damage sensor MRN (Lee and Paull, 2004, Lee and Paull, 2005, Wang et al., 2014, Dupré et al., 2006). MRN is a DNA-binding-protein complex that consists of three proteins; Mre11, Rad 50, and Nbs1. Holomorphic mutations in these genes cause the autosomal recessive DNA damage repair disorders, Ataxia Telangiectasia- Like disorder, Nijmegen breakage syndrome-like disorder, and Nijmegen breakage syndrome respectively, which all share features with AT (**figure 1.3**) (**see appendix 1.1**) (Paull and Lee, 2005, Stewart et al., 1999, Waltes et al., 2009, Saar et al., 1997).

Once activated in response to DNA damage, ATM-mediated signal transduction results in one of two cell fates. The first is cell survival, where ATM halts gene transcription/translation, arrests cell cycle, and activates other DNA damage repair proteins. The ATM protein can also bind directly to the site of DNA double strand breaks and attract DNA repair proteins to that site (**see figure 1.4**).

The second fate is cell death, which occurs if the genomic instability is too great to repair, whereby ATM then directs the cell towards apoptosis (Jang et al., 2010, Kubota et al., 2014, Ma et al., 2013, Pizarro et al., 2009, Meng et al., 1999, Kim et al., 2002, Yazdi et al., 2002, Yukawa et al., 2008, Oleson et al., 2014, Schweikl et al., 2014, Brown et al., 1997a, Shanbhag et al., 2010). A condensed outline of the DDR signalling pathway can be seen in **figure 1.4**.

While it is largely accepted that ATM activation in the context of dsDNA breaks is through the MRN complex for optimum signalling in the DDR, there is still controversy surrounding DNA damage activation of ATM as a whole. As previously stated, dsDNA can activate ATM directly in a dose dependent manner, independent of the MRN complex (Dupré et al., 2006, You et al., 2007). However, it is possible that the conformational change that occurs in chromatin upon double strand breaks may also activate ATM (Bakkenist and Kastan, 2003). Additionally, it has been demonstrated that ATM activation can take place by its effector proteins in the DDR pathway even in the absence of DNA lesions (Soutoglou and Misteli, 2008). In reality, it is likely that there is redundancy in ATM activation and that some combination of these processes occurs together in a complex feedback loop that allows the DDR to be sustained for a number of hours (Andegeko et al., 2001). Differing levels of DNA damage sparks the DDR to differing degrees through many pathways to ensure an adequate but not overly zealous response, that would no doubt be at a high energy cost to the cell. Multiple redundancies of DDR activation is also supported by that fact that expression of kinase dead ATM results in a more severe phenotype than ablation of ATM (Choi et al., 2010, Yamamoto et al., 2012b, Daniel et al., 2012)

a.



b.

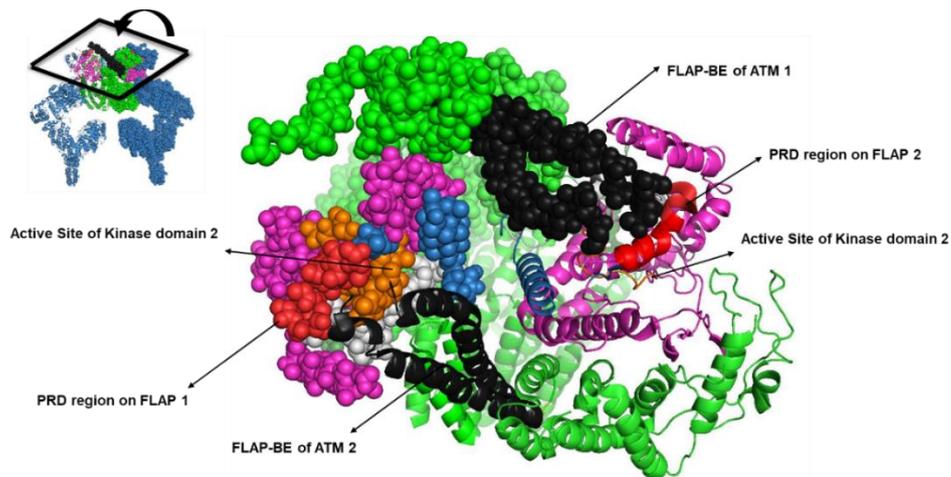


Figure 1.2 Overview of the structure of dimeric closed conformation human ATM protein and its functional domains. a) Representation of electron cryomicroscopy structure of closed conformation of ATM submitted to RSCB Protein Data Bank (PDB) - 5NP0 (RCSB, 2017, Baretic et al., 2017). ATM contains a kinase domain (pink) sandwiched between an N terminal FAT (FRAP-ATM-TRRAP) domain (green) and a C-terminal FATC domain (grey). N terminal to the FAT domain is HEAT (Huntingtin, Elongation factor 3, Alpha-regulatory subunit of protein phosphatase 2A and TOR1) domain (blue). At the extreme N terminal is the TAN (Tel1/ATM N-terminal) domain (orange) which functions in telomere maintenance. These domains are thought to regulate the kinase activity through protein-protein interactions and steric hindrance (Lempiäinen and Halazonetis, 2009). The first 60 residues of human and zebrafish ATM showing part of the TAN domain and the highly conserved motif is presented in bold and underscored (Seidel et al., 2008). **b)** ATM molecule 1 of the dimer is shown in spheres; ATM molecule 2 is shown as ribbons. The FLAP-BE (black) of one ATM pushes the PRD region of the FLAP motif (red) of the opposite molecule into its own active site (orange), therefore preventing the access of substrates. Note, the remainder of the HEAT, FAT, Kinase, and FATC domains are shown in blue, green, pink, and grey respectively, as in part a.

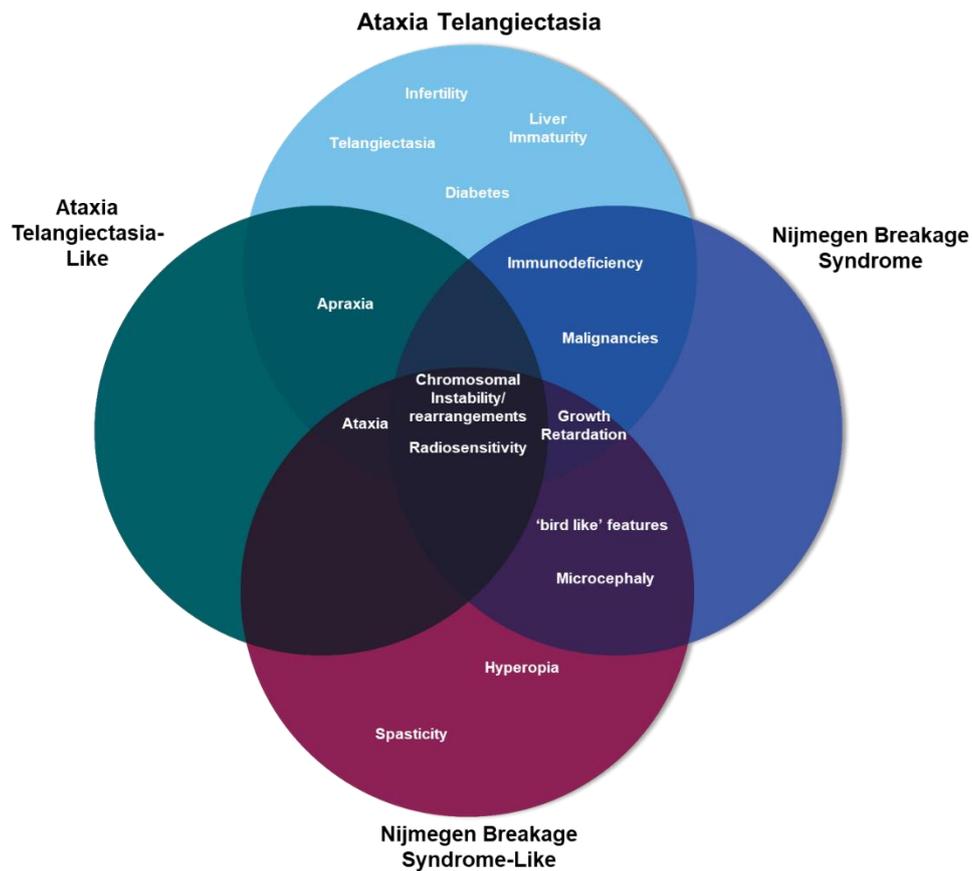


Figure 1.3 Overlapping phenotypic traits of Ataxia Telangiectasia, Ataxia Telangiectasia-Like, Nijmegen Breakage Syndrome, and Nijmegen Breakage Syndrome-Like disorders. These disorders are associated by mutations in the *ATM*, *Mre11*, *Nbs1* and *Rad50* genes respectively (Hernandez et al., 1993, Delia et al., 2004, Fernet et al., 2005, Miyamoto et al., 2014, Wegner et al., 1988, Saar et al., 1997, Seemanová et al., 1985, Barbi et al., 1991, Waltes et al., 2009).

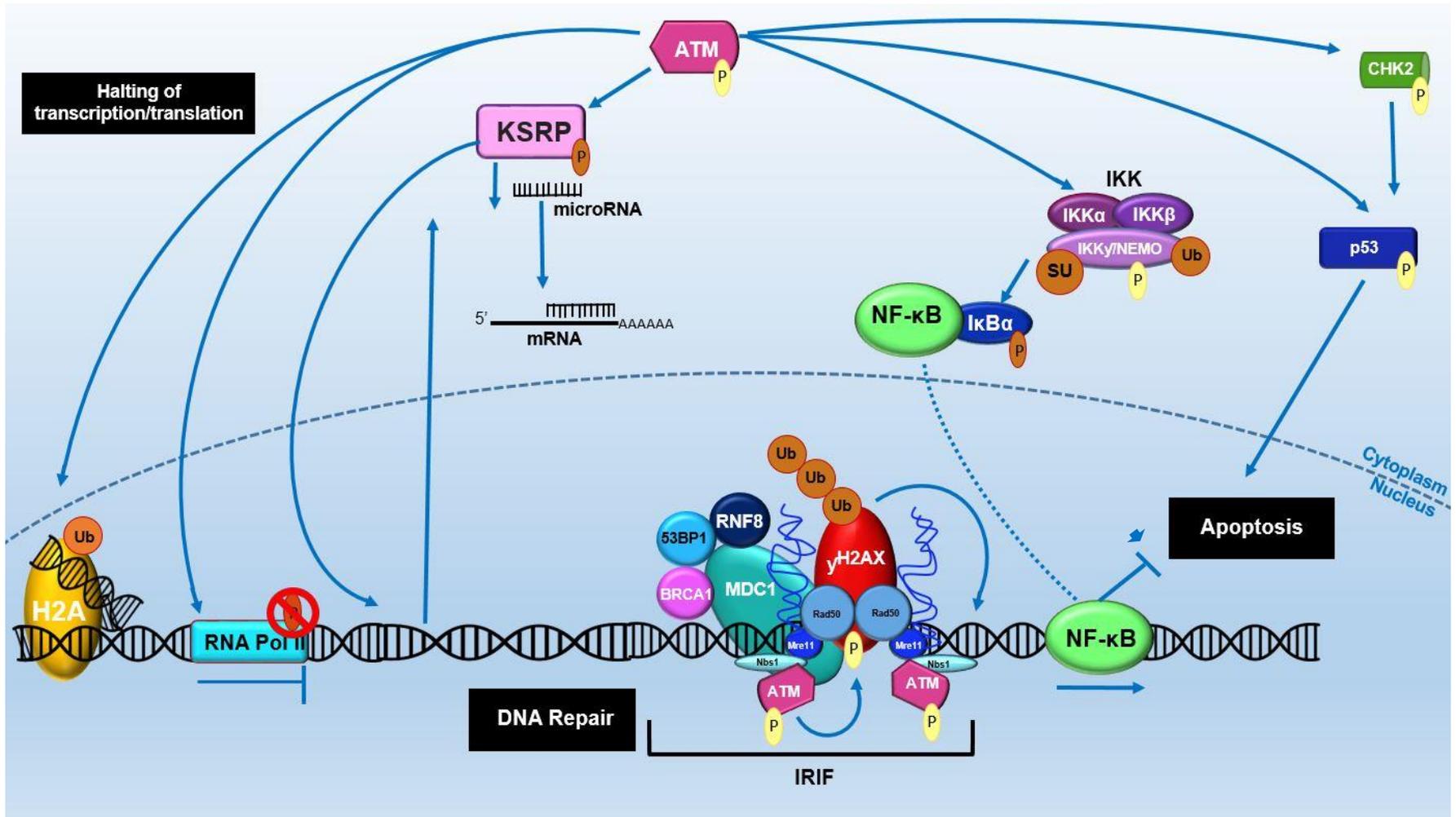


Figure 1.4 Modified/Simplistic overview of the ATM signalling pathway in response to DNA damage. ATM is implicit in the regulation of over 1077 downstream effector proteins (Mu et al., 2007, Matsuoka et al., 2007); the above is an overview of the ATM signalling cascade using specific examples to illustrate the three pronged approach to attenuate DNA damage. **NB Direct phosphorylation targets of ATM are shown in yellow while ATM mediated phosphorylation targets are shown in orange.** Within seconds of dsDNA breaks, the ATM dimer is activated by the MRN complex, monomerises and becomes autophosphorylated at S367, T1885, S1893 and Ser1981, and acetylated at L3016 (Baretić et al., 2017). **1)** The first prong of the response is **DNA Repair** where monomeric ATM interacts with both the Mre11 and Nbs1 subunits of the MRN complex, which bridges the two ends of the damaged DNA. This interaction between ATM and the MRN complex anchors ATM directly to the site of the DNA break which in turn phosphorylates the MRN complex, amplifying the DDR (Lee and Paull, 2004, Lee and Paull, 2005, Dupré et al., 2006). At the site of dsDNA breaks, ATM phosphorylates the c-terminal tail of γ H2AX. Phosphorylated γ H2AX interacts with the Nbs1 subunit of the MRN to continuously activate ATM. Additionally, activated γ H2AX recruits MDC1 protein (mediator of DNA damage checkpoint protein 1) which activates and recruits additional ATM protein to the damaged site. MDC1 has a reciprocal relationship with ATM, where it activates ATM and in turn ATM increases MDC1 oligomerization, snowballing DDR amplification. Moreover, the MDC1 protein also co-recruits further ATM effectors such as RNF8, 53BP1 (p53-Binding Protein 1) and BRCA1 (Breast and Ovarian Cancer Susceptibility Protein 1) (Mochan et al., 2003, Stucki et al., 2005, Lou et al., 2006, Savic et al., 2009, Luo et al., 2011, Liu et al., 2012b, Jungmichel et al., 2012, Yuan et al., 2010, Huen et al., 2007, Kolas et al., 2007, Mailand et al., 2007, Wang and Elledge, 2007, Stucki and Jackson, 2006, Wood et al., 2007). The massive accumulation of proteins at the site of dsDNA breaks are termed ionizing radiation induced foci (IRIF). **2)** The second prong of the approach is to stop erroneous transcript expression from around the site of the damage, therefore ATM reforms the transcriptome by **halting transcription and translation**. One pathway that is suggested for stopping gene transcription is the ubiquitination of Histone 2A (H2A) in an ATM dependent manner. Ubiquitination of H2A prevents chromatin from relaxing and de-condensing to allow transcription. A second ATM pathway that has been described for transcription inactivation is the dephosphorylation, and thus inactivation, of RNA polymerase II (RNA Pol II). To stop translation of mRNA transcripts that may have already been produced from the site of DNA damage or perhaps transcripts promoting the continuation of the cell cycle, ATM has been shown to upregulate the biogenesis and transcription of KSRP (KH-type splicing regulatory protein) dependent microRNAs. These microRNAs bind to mRNA in the cytosol and prevent its translation (Wang et al., 2004, Shanbhag et al., 2010, Müller et al., 2001, Wan et al., 2013, Liu and Liu, 2011, Zhang et al., 2011). **3)** Finally, dependant on whether the cell can repair the DNA damage, the cell survives, or where it cannot overcome the DNA insults, it is removed through apoptosis. ATM antagonistically mediates this. For the **Cell Survival/Apoptosis** axis, cytosolic ATM both directly and indirectly phosphorylates the cell fate protein, p53 through CHK2. Again, this is another example of the redundancy seen in ATM signalling pathways. p53 then phosphorylates its own effector proteins, some of which are also phosphorylated by ATM. Activation of this pathway stalls cell cycle progression and directs the cell towards apoptosis. Conversely, ATM also liberates the transcription factor NF- κ B from its inhibitor protein through the IKK complex (I κ B kinase), allowing NF- κ B to translocate to the nucleus and activate anti-apoptotic genes (Siliciano et al., 1997, Canman et al., 1998, Banin et al., 1998, Rashi-Elkeles et al., 2011, Rashi-Elkeles et al., 2006, Hadian and Krappmann, 2011, McCool and Miyamoto, 2012)

1.2.3 ATM Outside the DDR and its Role in Cellular Homeostasis

There is increasing evidence to suggest that the primary function of ATM is maintaining cellular homeostasis in general, and that it functions in many cellular processes in addition to its role in DDR. Over the past 10 years, there has been a paradigm shift in the way in which ATM is thought to function outside the DDR. Relatively recently it has been shown that ATM is activated differentially in the cytosol in response to oxidative stress, and that it also has a peroxisome localisation sequence in the C-terminal end of the FATC domain (Watters et al., 1999, Zhang et al., 2013). Its activation in the context of oxidative stress is independent of the monomerisation observed in response to DNA damage, and instead employs the use of multiple intermolecular disulfide bonds to produce an active dimer conformation, particularly between C2991 of each ATM molecule (Lee et al., 2018, Guo et al., 2010b, Guo et al., 2010a). In response to ROS, ATM is not only activated in a different manner but also phosphorylates substrates in separate pathways, particularly pathways upregulating autophagy (Guo et al., 2010b, Kim et al., 2010, Guo et al., 2010a, Kozlov et al., 2016, Alexander et al., 2010, Watters et al., 1999, Zhang et al., 2015a, Guo et al., 2020). The functions of ATM in the DDR and in response to oxidative stress are separable, to the extent that one functional pathway can remain uninterrupted even when crucial residues for the other are mutated (Guo et al., 2010b, Lee et al., 2018).

Some consideration should be given to the possibility that the open conformation dimer with some kinase activity, observed by Baretić et al, 2017 (**section 1.2.2**), may be the same disulfide bond induced active dimer observed by Guo et al, (2010a 2010b) in response to oxidative stress. It is possible that under basal conditions the S-S bond between the two dimeric molecules exists in a redox equilibrium, and then in the presence of ROS the bond becomes oxidised to a stable S-S bond and the 24° rotation of the FLAP-BE remains the activated form.

It appears that the activation of ATM through the oxidative stress pathway functions in maintaining proteostasis by regulating autophagy (**figure 1.5**). In cells expressing mutant ATM that could not be activated by ROS, or transduce signals through that pathway, but which still maintained its role in the DDR, researchers saw a 100-fold increase in global protein aggregation. Interestingly,

the authors saw an increase specifically in the aggregation of CK2, a direct target of ATM, and a mediator of ATM induced autophagy in response to oxidative stress (**see figure 1.5**). Aggregation of CK2 is known to decrease its signalling, which would suggest that the aggregation of proteins observed in cells unable to mount an ATM dependant oxidative stress pathway is due to a failure to adequately upregulate autophagy (Valero et al., 1995, Hübner et al., 2014, Lolli et al., 2012, Niefind and Issinger, 2005). This protein aggregation was observed to further increased in these mutant ATM cells when they were exposed to low levels of ROS (Lee et al., 2018).

In response to oxidative stress and hypoxia, ATM has also been shown to inhibit mTORC1 (mTOR complex 1) through the tumour suppressor protein TSC2 (Tuberous Sclerosis 2) resulting in an upregulation of autophagy (**see figure 1.5**) (Budanov and Karin, 2008, Alexander et al., 2010, Sarbassov et al., 2005, Olcina et al., 2013, Cam et al., 2010). A similar pathway has also been delineated for the maintenance of proteostasis in response to reactive nitrogen species (RNS) (Tripathi et al., 2013).

ATM has been specifically linked to pexophagy and mitophagy. In the N-terminal FAT domain, ATM contains a peroxisome localisation sequence, which sequesters ATM to the peroxisome membrane via the import receptor PEX5 (Watters et al., 1999, Zhang et al., 2013, Tripathi et al., 2016). ATM is also found to localise to mitochondria and becomes rapidly phosphorylated in response to mitochondrial dysfunction. Cells lacking functional ATM also have a decrease in mitochondrial turnover (Valentin-Vega et al., 2012, Fang and Bohr, 2017, Fang et al., 2016). It is thought that ATM might regulate mitophagy by being an apex signal that regulates the well-studied PINK1/Parkin (PTEN-induced putative kinase 1/Parkin) mitophagy pathway, although the exact mechanism of this has yet to be decoded (Qi et al., 2016, Gu et al., 2018). ATM also functions in the upregulation of antioxidant synthesis through the Pentose Phosphate Pathway, and loss of residues required specifically for the oxidative stress response correlates with decreased levels of the antioxidant glutathione (Zhang et al., 2018, Cosentino et al., 2011).

Outside of cellular stress, ATM functions in maintaining cellular homeostasis by regulating insulin/glucose signalling both directly and indirectly. Insulin and insulin-like growth factor-I (IGF-I) have both been shown to signal through ATM, and in turn, ATM regulates the signalling of IGF-I by upregulating transcription of the IGF-I receptor in response to IGF-1 signalling (Yang and Kastan, 2000, Ching et al., 2013, Peretz et al., 2001). Once activated by insulin signalling, ATM initiates a signalling cascade where it phosphorylates PKB/Akt (Protein Kinase B), which allows its translocation to the membrane, (Viniegra et al., 2005, Halaby et al., 2008), where it regulates glucose entry to the cell by activating GLUT4.

The ability of a cell to adequately uptake glucose in response to insulin signalling is a key mechanism of energy storage and organism survival. Glucose transporter proteins mediate this movement of glucose across the cell membrane, the most insulin dependent of which is GLUT4 (Karlsson et al., 2005, Khayat et al., 2000). ATM functions in regulating both GLUT1 and GLUT4 independent of the PKB/Akt pathway. Through insulin signalling, ATM acts on GLUT4 through the Rab GTPase, AS160, and sequesters it to the cell membrane for glucose translocation (Jeong et al., 2010, Sano et al., 2003). ATM phosphorylates GLUT1, increasing its association with the GTPase activator GIPC1, allowing GLUT1 translocation to the extracellular side of the membrane (Matsuoka et al., 2007, Andrisse et al., 2013). This pathway emphasises genetic compensation that can happen after the loss of ATM, as despite there being a decrease of GLUT1 on the cell membrane there is a compensatory upregulation of GLUT1 translation (Andrisse et al., 2013, Ousset et al., 2010).

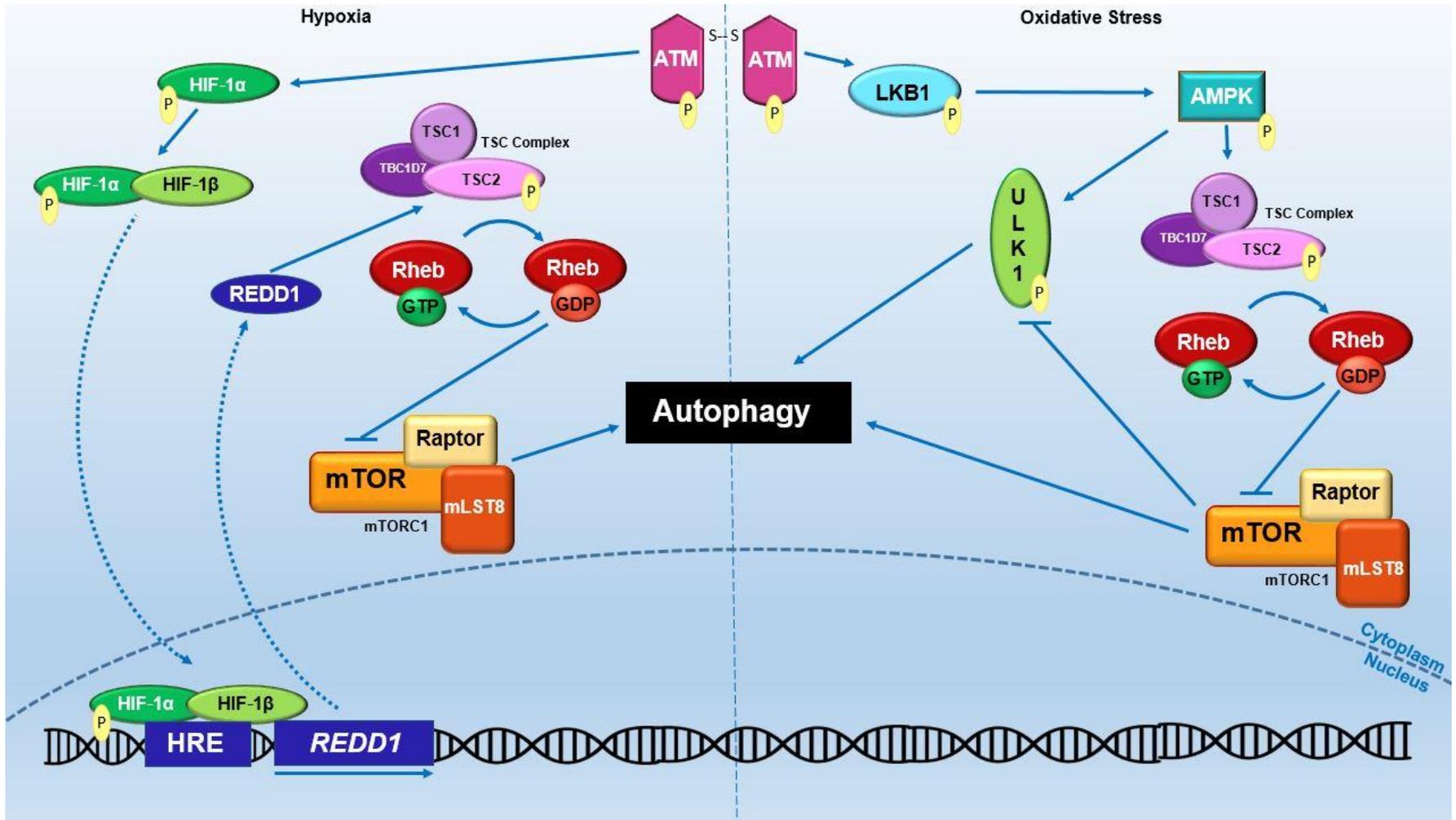


Figure 1.5 ATM mediated redox induces autophagy through mTORC1 during oxidative stress. The ATM dimer is activated through a conformational change from the formation of a number of disulfide bonds, particularly of C2991 in the FATC domain. The autophosphorylation of ATM begins a signalling cascade whereby ATM phosphorylates LKB1 (liver kinase B1 protein) which in turn phosphorylates AMPK (AMP-activated protein kinase). AMPK then phosphorylates TSC2 in the TSC (Tuberous sclerosis complex). The TSC has GTPase activity and inactivates Rheb (Ras homolog enriched in brain) by converting the bound GTP to GDP. mTORC requires active GTP bound Rheb for its activity, therefore the conversion of GTP bound Rheb to GDP bound Rheb inactivates mTOR, which allows for the upregulation of autophagy. Again demonstrating the redundancy in the ATM signalling pathway, ATM mediated activated AMPK also directly phosphorylates and activates ULK1 kinase complex. ULK1 directly upregulates autophagosome biogenesis, and under times of cell growth is directly inhibited by mTORC1 in a feedback mechanism. Conversely, in times of **hypoxia**, ATM also directly upregulates autophagy in a similar pathway. Under low oxygen concentrations, cytosolic ATM has been shown to phosphorylate HIF-1 α (hypoxia-inducible factor). Phospho-HIF-1 α is then able to bind to HIF-1 β , forming the HIF complex. This transcription factor complex translocates to the nucleus where it binds to hypoxia-response elements (HRE) in the promoters of genes that are upregulated to protect the cell against hypoxia. One of these genes is *regulated in development and DDR 1 (REDD1)*. The REDD1 protein, once in the cytosol it is then able to activate the TSC complex and suppress mTORC1 activity as seen in the oxidative stress response (Olcina et al., 2013, Cam et al., 2010, Bencokova et al., 2009, Alexander et al., 2010, Dibble et al., 2012, Kim et al., 2011, Di Nardo et al., 2014).

1.2.4 ATM Genotype vs AT Phenotype

The severity of the clinical phenotype can vary significantly from classical AT to a considerably milder phenotype (variant AT). It appears that variant AT is linked to a subset of cases where the mutant ATM protein is present and has some residual activity. Patients with less severe symptoms tend to have compound heterozygous mutations with one allele being a null variant while the other tends to be 'leaky' and to confer some protein functionality (Gilad et al., 1998, Ying and Decoteau, 1981, Saviozzi et al., 2002, Hiel et al., 2006, Verhagen et al., 2009, Verhagen et al., 2012a, Fievet et al., 2019). Genotype/phenotype correlations can be problematic in AT for two reasons; first, there are no mutational hotspots in ATM, therefore due to the size of the ATM gene, identifying novel pathogenic mutations from non-pathogenic variants can be challenging (Mitui et al., 2003). As splice site mutations in AT are common, both coding and noncoding regions of ATM need to be considered. Second, many individuals affected by AT are compound heterozygotes (Mitui et al., 2003, Mitui et al., 2005, Verhagen et al., 2009, Verhagen et al., 2012b, Verhagen et al., 2012a). Therefore, it can be difficult to determine the contribution of each allele to the overall clinical phenotype (Gatti et al., 1999, Meyn, 1999). It is not known in what circumstances ATM dimer exists in heterozygous patients without a null allele, and whether the dimer is comprised of ATM proteins from just one or both alleles (Fievet et al., 2019, Taylor et al., 2015). Finally, individuals with homozygous mutations tend to be from consanguineous families (Shimazaki et al., 2020, Concannon and Gatti, 1997). Such patients will have extensive regions of homozygosity in their genomes, which makes it challenging to rule out the influence of other recessively inherited variants that may influence the phenotypic presentation (Balta et al., 2019).

AT symptoms, and their severity, are dependent on residual levels of ATM kinase activity (Barone et al., 2009, Verhagen et al., 2012a). ATM kinase activity is measured in patient cells by measuring phosphorylation of downstream targets of ATM (Mitui et al., 2005, Paucar et al., 2019, Cummins et al., 2013, Fievet et al., 2019). While this does give an excellent indication of kinase activity, it is only kinase activity for those specific targets, and does not indicate any alteration to protein-protein interactions. For instance, missense mutations have been

described which cause ATM to mislocalise in cells, and this is thought to be sufficient to cause AT (Jacquemin et al., 2012, Fievet et al., 2019).

It is thought that the pleiotropic effects of AT can be mostly defined by a perturbation of two main downstream pathways. Disruption to the DDR pathway may lead to immunodeficiency, telangiectasia, and infertility, while metabolic dysregulation may be attributed to the inability to control redox stress. It is not clear from perturbation of which pathway results in ataxia as there is evidence for deregulation of both the DDR and oxidative stress being causative. Malignancy seems to be caused by an overlap of failure in both the DDR and oxidative stress pathways. Evidence for these divergent pathways leading to different AT phenotypes are presented in the following sections.

1.2.4.1 Immunodeficiency

AT is classed as a Primary Immunodeficiency Disorder that affects both cellular and humoral immune function, and over 70-80% of AT patients suffer from severe and often fatal infections as a result (Nowak-Wegrzyn et al., 2004, Buckley, 2004). In the absence of ATM, there is a failure to mount an adequate response to pathogens, including insufficient antigen receptor combinations due to failure in V(D)J (variability, diversity, and joining) recombination, low levels of circulating immunoglobulins (Ig) due to failures in class switching recombination (CSR), and low levels of circulating mature B and T cells, which is a result of incomplete recombination events. Immunodeficiency amongst AT sufferers is variable, and the degree of immunodeficiency suffered by the patients correlates strongly with residual ATM activity, and primarily stems from the inability to repair specific DNA double strand breaks (Bredemeyer et al., 2006b, Reina-San-Martin et al., 2004a, Lumsden et al., 2004, Kracker and Durandy, 2011, Pan-Hammarström et al., 2003, Pan et al., 2002, Staples et al., 2008, Stray-Pedersen et al., 2005, Noordzij et al., 2009, Verhagen et al., 2012a).

Somatic recombination events in the immune system allow a highly varied antibody reaction in response to pathogens. V(D)J recombination takes place in developing B cells and it allows the humoral immune system to create antigen specific recognition sequences to several antigens from the same pathogen. This

diversity in antigen recognition sequences is complemented by CSR, which allows these variable regions to be paired in a number of ways with 'effector' constant regions of the antibody, e.g. IgM, IgG, IgE, IgD, and IgA (Roth, 2014, de Villartay, 2002, Kracker and Durandy, 2011). These recombination events are highly specific and ATM directly mediates repair of these DNA breaks during both V(D)J and CSR (Perkins et al., 2002, Dujka et al., 2010, Bredemeyer et al., 2006b, Noordzij et al., 2009, Reina-San-Martin et al., 2004b, Amirifar et al., 2020, Meek et al., 2016, Hewitt et al., 2009).

The inability of the adaptive immune system to adequately complete V(D)J recombination leaves AT sufferers with a depleted antibody repertoire, and therefore the inability of the immune system to recognise multiple antigens from the same pathogen. Failure in CSR leads AT patients to have lower overall circulating serum immunoglobulin levels. In a study of 100 AT patients, 65% had a decrease in serum IgG4, 48% had a decrease in IgG2, 63% had a decrease in IgA, and 23% had a decrease in IgE (Nowak-Wegrzyn et al., 2004). As IgM is the 'default' immunoglobulin class from which the others are 'switched', AT can lead to a serum increase of IgM, often leading to a misdiagnosis of hyper-IgM syndrome (Noordzij et al., 2009). The degree to which immunoglobulins are reduced in patient shows a relationship to residual kinase activity, where variant AT may have inconsistent levels of immunoglobulins but no observed primary immunodeficiency. Classical AT patients generally have very low levels of immunoglobulins, to the point where some individuals may have hypogammaglobulinemia (Nowak-Wegrzyn et al., 2004, Fievet et al., 2019).

AT patients also present with excessive translocations and inversions of chromosome 7 and 14 in lymphocytes (Oxford et al., 1975, McCaw et al., 1975, Aurias et al., 1980, Aurias et al., 1986). These are also found in the general population, but at a rate of 1:2000 per lymphocytes surveyed, while in AT patients they are found a rate of 1:60 (Kojis et al., 1989, Kojis et al., 1991). These chromosome breaks are not random and map to sites of genes of the immunoglobulin heavy chain and T cell receptor genes (Kirsch et al., 1982, Aurias and Dutrillaux, 1986, Huang et al., 2007, Bredemeyer et al., 2006b). This suggests that these translocations are a result of unrepaired intermediate ds breaks from somatic recombination events. These cytogenetic abnormalities are

pathogenic to AT sufferers, as not only do they inhibit the required immune response to infections, they are also associated with increased incidence of AT associated leukaemia and lymphomas. This will be discussed in more detail below in section **1.2.4.2 Malignancies**.

This inability of the AT immune system to form antibodies results in decreased B cell and T cell serum levels. However, the degree to which they are reduced varies from classical AT to variant AT, and very low levels of B cells in classical AT correlate with a decrease in circulating immunoglobulins, signifying that aberrant V(D)J recombination blocks B cell maturation. Classical AT patients also show an increase in naive B cell production as a compensatory mechanism. This compensatory mechanism, as well as IgA deficiency, is likely to underlie the burden of lymphoma in AT patients. It also demonstrates the overlap between immunodeficiency and malignant pathology in AT (Driessen et al., 2013, Suarez et al., 2015). AT variant patients also show an increase in this compensatory mechanism but to a far lesser extent (Driessen et al., 2013).

The decrease in serum T cells in AT patients is likely to be associated with chromosome 7 and 14 translocations at the sites of T cell receptor genes (Driessen et al., 2013, Kirsch et al., 1982, Aurias and Dutrillaux, 1986, Aurias et al., 1986, Kojis et al., 1991). Additionally, abnormalities in the thymus, the site of T cell production, are also observed in AT, but these are thought to be linked to dysregulation of the oxidative stress response and an increase in apoptosis, rather than a deficiency in the DDR (Peterson et al., 1964, Schubert et al., 2002, Giovannetti et al., 2002, Bagley et al., 2007, Gatti and Vinters, 1985).

Deficits in the ability of the immune system to induce the required immune response leaves AT patients open to recurrent and severe infections, particularly respiratory infections. These infections make up a significant portion of the morbidity of AT, with up to 50% of AT patients dying during adolescence from respiratory failure (Bott et al., 2007, Crawford et al., 2006, Pagano et al., 1998). Mitigating infections in AT patients is clinically difficult. The inability of some AT patients to mount an antibody response makes vaccination a low yielding avenue of treatment. Prophylactic vaccination may be a viable approach to attenuate infection and boost circulating immunoglobulin levels in variant AT patients.

However, this is far less efficacious for classical AT patients with very low levels of circulating immunoglobulin, particularly in individuals with hypogammaglobulinemia (Warren et al., 2019, Stray-Pedersen et al., 2005, Sanal et al., 1999). Therefore, the current best practice for the treatment of immunodeficiency in AT patients is immunoglobulin replacement therapy and management of individual infections. Additionally, viral infections exhibit a unique challenge for a DDR deficient immune system because the cellular defence mechanism to cytosolic nucleic acid may be ATM dependent (Dunphy et al., 2018, Hartlova et al., 2015). Oncogenic viruses pose a particular threat to AT patients, as they can not only cause a primary infection, but can also result in related malignancies (Kulinski et al., 2012, Okano et al., 1993, Rubinstein et al., 2020, Dunphy et al., 2018).

1.2.4.2 Malignancies

AT patients have a significant predisposition to malignancies, and the incidence of malignancies in AT patients is estimated to be as high as 33%. These malignancies tend to be leukaemias, lymphomas and carcinomas (Morrell et al., 1990, Suarez et al., 2015, Reiman et al., 2011, Peterson et al., 1964, Taylor et al., 1996). Malignancies in young and early adult AT patients tend to present as leukaemia and lymphomas which are the result of failure in V(D)J recombination, causing translocations involving chromosomes 7 and 14 in lymphocytes (Taylor et al., 1996, Bredemeyer et al., 2006b, Huang et al., 2007, Vacchio et al., 2007, Hewitt et al., 2009) (**see section 1.2.4.1 Immunodeficiency**). Childhood leukaemias within the general population tend to be pre-B cell and B cell-precursor Acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL), which are formed by cells that have not yet completed V(D)J recombination (Greaves and Wiemels, 2003), whereas AT patients do not show any increase in these type of leukaemias, but do show an increase in B-cell tumours where the cell should have completed V(D)J recombination (Taylor et al., 1996, Gumy-Pause et al., 2004). Lymphoid leukaemias are the main cause of death in patients with homozygous loss of function mutations (Reiman et al., 2011, Suarez et al., 2015, Taylor et al., 1996, Micol et al., 2011a).

Early childhood lymphomas and leukaemias in AT are causally linked to a deficiency in the DDR and the inability to maintain genome integrity, and these types of malignancies affect classical AT patients to a far greater extent than they do variant AT patients (Reiman et al., 2011). Complete loss of function mutations are strongly associated with increased cancer risk and increased morbidity (Micol et al., 2011a). Note that this pattern of variation is similar to that observed in immunodeficiency in variant AT patients (**see 1.2.4.1**). It is also closely correlated with residual kinase activity, and if variant AT patients do develop leukaemia/lymphoma, it tends to be in adulthood as opposed to early childhood (Reiman et al., 2011). Interestingly, patients with severe IgA deficiency have a higher risk of cancer (Suarez et al., 2015). Although a properly functioning immune system is protective in clearing malignant cells, this correlation is most likely due to a severe attenuation of CSR in these cells (where the IgA locus is last to be cleaved during recombination) and increased genome instability.

AT patients also have an increased risk of carcinomas in late childhood/adulthood, particularly breast, liver and gastrointestinal carcinomas (Micol et al., 2011a). By age 50, AT patients have a 45% risk of developing breast cancer, which is significantly higher than similarly aged patients carrying heterozygous or holomorphic mutations in the DDR genes *BRCA1* or *BRAC2*, which carry a breast cancer risk of 30% and 20% respectively (Antoniou et al., 2008, Reiman et al., 2011). Whether defects in the DDR or unresolved oxidative stress is causative in later onset malignancies in AT is open to debate, and will likely vary from patient to patient due to genetic predisposition and environmental factors.

It should also be noted that dysfunction of ATM has also been shown to play a role in the formation of solid tumours in the general population. De novo somatic mutations in *ATM*, low ATM expression caused by hypermethylation of the *ATM* promoter, and specific SNPs in the *ATM* gene have all been shown to be causative factors (Choi et al., 2016, Kim et al., 2014a, Kim et al., 2013, Kim et al., 2014b, Suh et al., 2016, Begam et al., 2017, Bolt et al., 2005, Mehdipour et al., 2015, Safar et al., 2005, Vo et al., 2004, Stracker et al., 2013, Weber and Ryan, 2015, Tao et al., 2020).

1.2.4.3 Telangiectasias and Vascular Abnormalities

Telangiectasias, or spider veins, are dilated and broken blood vessels that present as threadlike patterns (**see figure 1.6**). The cause of telangiectasias in AT remains unclear. In AT patients, onset of telangiectasia occurs around 8 years of age and tends to present on the cheeks, ears, legs, arms, trunk, and particularly the bulbar conjunctiva in the eyes. One study estimates that telangiectasias occur in 97% of classical AT cases and therefore they aid in the differential diagnosis of the disease (Greenberger et al., 2013). However, it should be noted that not all patients with a mutation in the *ATM* gene present with this symptom, and this can often result in a diagnostic delay (Cabana et al., 1998, Navratil et al., 2015). These exterior telangiectasias associated with AT appear to be mainly cosmetic, since they are non-progressive and do not usually cause itching or pain to the sufferer. It does appear that the degree to which patients have telangiectasias correlates with the residual kinase activity of the mutant ATM protein. In one study, 100% of patients with no expression of the ATM protein exhibited external telangiectasias, and this decreased to 54% of patients with some residual kinase activity (Schoenaker et al., 2018).

Although there do not seem to be any pathological concerns from these external telangiectasias, there are many reports in which internal telangiectasias and vascular abnormalities have severe consequences for the patient. Several case studies have been reported where AT patients have bladder telangiectasias (**see figure 1.6c**), which result in significant life threatening haematuria in the individual. In addition to telangiectasias, there are several reported cases of haemorrhagic cysts in the bladder (Micol et al., 2011b, van Os et al., 2017b, Kaymaz et al., 2009, Christmann et al., 2009, Cohen et al., 2008, Aygün et al., 2015, Suzuki et al., 2008).

How loss of ATM function causes telangiectasias, and telangiectasia formation in general, is not well understood, but it is thought to be correlated with ageing; another symptom associated with the AT phenotype. ATM has been implicated in angiogenesis through the oxidative stress pathway (Yun et al., 2009, Okuno et al., 2012).



Figure 1.6 Telangiectasias in AT patients **a.** on the surface of the skin (Fernandez, 2019) and **b.** eyes (Rothblum-Oviatt et al., 2016) <https://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/> and **c.** telangiectasias in the bladder leading to severe haematuria (Suzuki et al., 2008).

1.2.4.4 Metabolic Dysregulation

Elevated levels of AFP (alpha-fetoprotein) is a characteristic finding in AT patients of all ages and often serves as an important biomarker for AT (Waldmann and McIntire, 1972). Normally, AFP is produced at high levels by the fetal liver, and expression steadily decreases over the first few years of life to low ‘adult’ levels at around 2 years old (Bergstrand and Czar, 1956). However, in AT patients AFP levels tend to increase with age (Waldmann and McIntire, 1972, Stray-Pedersen et al., 2007). Concerning genotype/phenotype correlation, all cases of AT appear to have elevated AFP regardless of whether they present as classical or variant AT (Mitui et al., 2005). It is the only symptom of AT that does not correlate to residual kinase activity, and it is not clear yet if the elevated levels of AFP are pathogenic or only serve as a marker for some other pathogenesis, as the mechanism for its elevation is not yet understood. However, the elevation of AFP levels in AT has tentatively been linked to the loss of regulation of an ATM target, the transcription regulatory factor ZFHX3/ATBF1 (Zinc Finger Homeobox 3/ (AT-motif binding factor 1) (Kim et al., 2010, Matsuoka et al., 2007). ZFHX3/ATBF1 binds to A-T rich sequences of the *AFP* gene and inhibits its transcription in conjunction with p53 (Morinaga et al., 1991, Yasuda et al., 1994, Wilkinson et al., 2008). Therefore, loss of ATM signalling is associated with loss of downstream ZFHX3/ATBF1 and p53 signalling, and subsequent aberrant expression of AFP (Kim et al., 2010).

Interestingly, two other autosomal recessive ataxias exhibit elevated AFP levels; AOA2 and AOA3 (Ataxia-Oculomotor Apraxia) (**see appendix 1.1**). This suggests at least two shared deregulated pathways between these three ASRAs; Purkinje cell death and chronic hepatic dysfunction (Anheim et al., 2009, Le Ber et al., 2004, Al Tassan et al., 2012). AOA2 patients have a loss of function mutation in the *SETX* gene; although not much is known about the SETX protein, it is thought to function in repairing transcription related DNA double strand breaks and possibly prevent R loop formation (Cohen et al., 2018, Suraweera et al., 2009, Zhao et al., 2016, Grunseich et al., 2018). This suggests that the elevated levels of AFP in both diseases may be a result of impaired DNA damage repair in the hepatic tissue, and more specifically, the inability to resolve R loop formation (Marabitti et al., 2019, Sordet et al., 2009, Sordet et al., 2010, Vermeulen and Tresini, 2017).

Due to more advanced care and as management of AT symptoms has improved, patients are living longer than previously, and this leads to an increase of age related liver pathology in AT. Older AT patients have been shown to suffer from hepatic stenosis along with fibrosis and cirrhosis, as well as elevated levels of other liver enzymes such as GGT (gamma-glutamyl-transferase), AST (aspartate aminotransferase), and ALT (alanine aminotransferase) (Paulino et al., 2017, Pillsbury et al., 1985, Caballero et al., 2014, Weiss et al., 2016). In a longitudinal study of AT patients, it seems that severe liver involvement begins around puberty, is progressive, and affects 92% of patients who survive into their 30s (Donath et al., 2019). It has been proposed that these abnormalities seen in the liver are due to the inability to activate the oxidative stress pathway of ATM rather than the DNA damage pathway (Daugherty et al., 2012, Donath et al., 2019).

As AT progresses into adolescence and adulthood, patients begin to exhibit metabolic syndrome, insulin resistance, and type 2 diabetes (Paulino et al., 2015, Yang et al., 2011b, Schalch et al., 1970, Connelly et al., 2016, Schneider et al., 2006), and it has been experimentally shown in mice that activation of ATM is protective against metabolic syndrome (Schneider et al., 2006). Mechanistically, ATM is thought to phosphorylate 4EBP-1 (eIF-4E-binding protein 1) in an insulin dependent manner. This then liberates eIF-4E (Eukaryotic

Initiation Factor 4E) from 4EBP-1, and allows eIF-4E dependent transcription (Yang and Kastan, 2000). A similar eIF-4E pathway has been implicated in cellular growth (Flynn and Proud, 1996) as well as ATM dependent activation of the IGF-IR (insulin-like growth factor-I receptor) (Peretz et al., 2001, Bar et al., 1978). Additionally, disruption of mTORC1 signalling has been implicated in insulin resistance diabetes. mTORC1 is negatively regulated by ATM in the context of the DDR and oxidative stress (Sarbasov et al., 2005, Alexander et al., 2010, Budanov and Karin, 2008). Disruption of these pathways is likely to contribute to insulin resistance, and therefore to the raised insulin levels observed. Additionally, aberrant insulin signalling may cause the short stature and growth retardation seen in AT sufferers.

1.2.4.5 Neurodegeneration

a. Clinical Presentation of Neurodegeneration in AT

Neurological symptoms are usually the first signs of AT and tend to present in infants. Children that suffer with AT tend to initially match normal developmental milestones but then either their gait starts to regress or they do not develop beyond a wobbly toddler gait. Around mid-childhood, an AT gait is progressively ataxic, along with the onset of oculomotor apraxia, nystagmus and saccades. Concurrently, there is an onset of dysarthria, as well as a progressive decrease in fine motor skills along with symptoms associated with deficiencies in the extrapyramidal system, such as chorea, athetosis, dystonia and myoclonic jerks. Patients' intentional movements may be hypokinetic or bradykinetic, and development of facial hypomimeia is common. AT patients are generally confined to a wheelchair at approximately 10 years of age, and at around 15 years of age, patients can often enter a plateau stage where the neurological symptoms are severe but no longer progressive (Boder and Sedgwick, 1958, Crawford, 1998, Hoche et al., 2012, Shaikh et al., 2013, Pearson, 2016, Kwast and Ignatowicz, 1990, Rothblum-Oviatt et al., 2016, Lewis and Crawford, 1998, Shaikh et al., 2009).

Neurological symptoms in AT are caused by degeneration of PCs and progressive atrophy of the cerebellum (Tavani et al., 2003, Shaikh et al., 2013).

Figure 1.7 shows MRI scans from three different AT patients aged 5, 13 and 39 years. As can be seen, the cerebellum of the 5 year old is largely intact, with the Purkinje dendritic arbors filling the cerebellar space. However, the 13 year old displays a substantial lessening of dendritic arbors, atrophy of the vermis, and cerebrospinal fluid (white) has infiltrated the molecular layer. In the 39 year old, near total atrophy of the cerebellum can be observed, with major degeneration of PC structure and again extensive intrusion of cerebrospinal fluid (Tavani et al., 2003). It has also been reported that there is an overall increase in microglial activation, suggesting the involvement of neuroinflammation (Verhagen et al., 2012b).

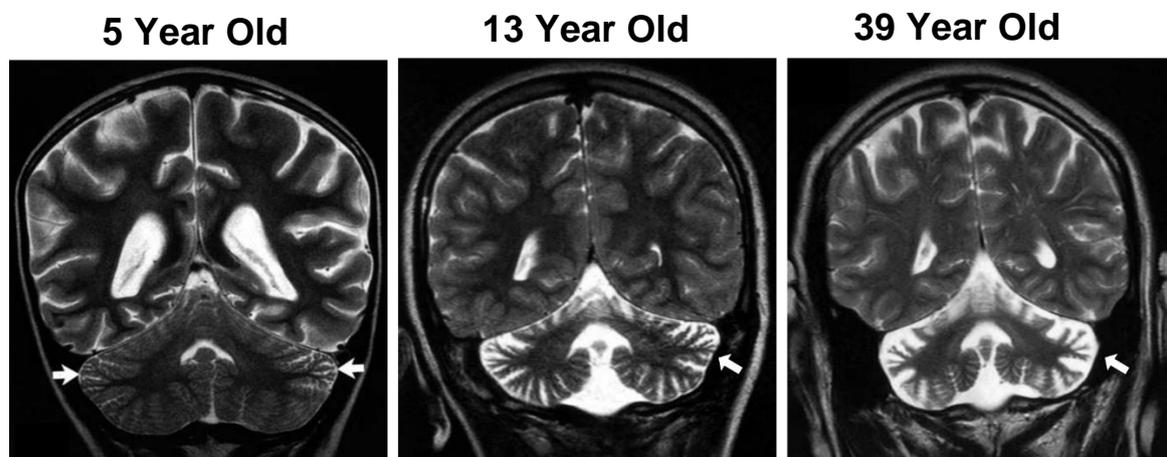


Figure 1.7 Coronal T2-weighted image of cerebellar atrophy in AT patients. White arrows indicate the cerebellar structure. Panels from left to right: 5 year old, 13 year old, 39 year old. Cerebellar atrophy with degeneration of PC dendrites and infiltration of cerebrospinal fluid can be observed in 13 & 39 year olds. Images adapted from (Tavani et al., 2003) and reproduced with permissions from SpringerNature.

The cause of the neurodegeneration observed in AT patients is not well understood, and the exact pathological mechanism responsible is hotly debated. Several potential mechanisms are summarised in **table 1.4** and discussed below. While the neurological symptoms are not a primary life-limiting aspect of AT, they remain the biggest barrier to quality to life for AT patients and contribute to morbidity by increasing food and saliva aspirations that lead to fatal respiratory infections. Therefore, the understanding of the pathological mechanism behind

this feature and the ability to reduce and mitigate its severity is an important aspect of AT clinical care.

b. DNA Damage Repair Deficiencies

Although the DDR plays an integral role in the development of the nervous system (Barzilai et al., 2008, Herzog et al., 1998, Lee et al., 2001), AT is degenerative, not developmental, and therefore, the reason that PCs in particular are vulnerable to the effects of DNA damage is not understood. An accumulated DNA damage model was first proposed to be a pathogenic mechanism in neurodegeneration as far back as 1978, and is still accepted today (Andrews et al., 1978). This model proposes that while endogenous neuronal DNA damage occurs in normal individuals, it is constantly being repaired, resulting in an equilibrium of low level damage and subsequent repair which the cells are able to tolerate and allows them to function efficiently. However, in patients with a DNA damage repair deficiency, the non-repaired DNA damage accumulates over time until it reaches a threshold that neuronal cells can no longer tolerate, and they die as a result of abortive transcription (**figure 1.8**). In the case of AT, this threshold may take years to be reached and may offer an explanation as to why mouse models of AT do not exhibit a strong neuronal phenotype, as their lifespan may not allow for this accumulation.

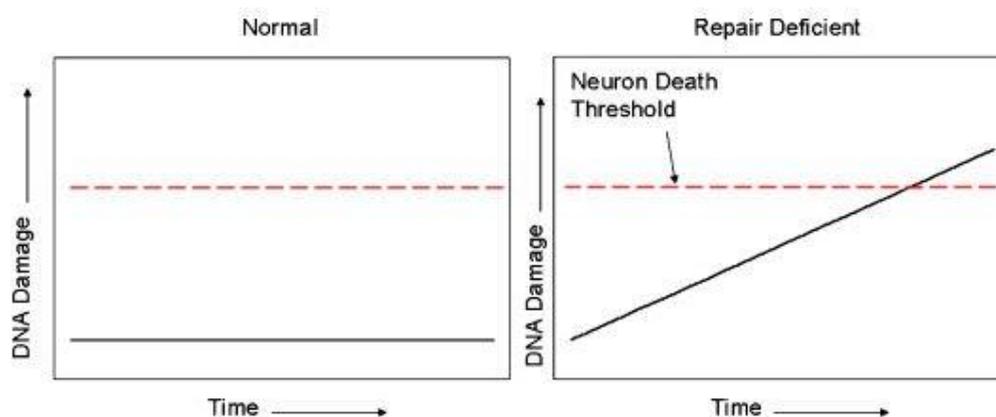


Figure 1.8 The accumulated DNA damage model of neurodegeneration. In normal individuals neuronal cells existed in a low level equilibrium of DNA damage and repair. In patients with a DNA damage repair deficiency, over time the unrepaired DNA damage reaches a threshold level whereby neuronal cell death occurs due to abortive transcription. Reproduced with permissions from (Brooks et al., 2008).

Abortive transcription due to excessive DNA lesions has been specifically implicated in AT. ATM is now known to play a role in repairing double and single strand breaks due to replication fork stalling and transcriptional unwinding, particularly in resolving Top1cc and R loops (Sordet et al., 2009, Sordet et al., 2010, Das et al., 2009, Alagoz et al., 2013, Katyal et al., 2014, Marabitti et al., 2019, Vermeulen and Tresini, 2017). TOP1cc are formed during DNA replication when Topoisomerase 1 (TOP1) binds to DNA and creates a single strand break to allow access of the replication machinery. The composite of TOP1 bound to DNA creates a Topoisomerase cleavage complex (TOPcc) which is generally transient and resolved by the hydrolysis of the shared 3' phosphodiester bond by TDP1 allowing re-ligation of the DNA backbone (Koster et al., 2005, Humbert et al., 2009, Pouliot et al., 1999, Interthal et al., 2001, Takashima et al., 2002). TOP1ccs have been shown to activate ATM in both the presence and absence of TDP1, and ATM deficient cells show a decrease in their ability to resolve these DNA protein linked breaks, as ATM directly phosphorylates TDP1 (Alagoz et al., 2013, Katyal et al., 2014, Das et al., 2009, Humbert et al., 2009, Sordet et al., 2009, Sordet et al., 2010, Lin et al., 2008). Top1ccs have also been observed in ATM-null neuronal cells and animal models (Katyal et al., 2014, Alagoz et al., 2013). Additionally, abortive transcription has also been implicated in two other recessively inherited ataxias, SCAN1 and AOA2, caused by mutations in TDP1 and SETX genes respectively (**see table 1.2 and appendix 1.1**). While ATM has roles outside of DNA repair, the fact that all three genes function in replication stress-related DNA repair suggests that this may be a shared disease mechanism. However, a caveat to note is that PCs are quiescent and exist in a G₀ state, so it is difficult to determine how replication stress would arise; however, TDP1 is highly expressed in PCs (Gorodetsky et al., 2007, Brooks et al., 2008).

There is also evidence to suggest that, in common with immune cells, neuronal cells also undergo somatic recombination events to maintain neuronal cell diversity (Iourov et al., 2009a, Iourov et al., 2009b, Gao et al., 1998, Wu and Maniatis, 1999). Given the absolute imperative that ATM must be functional for proper recombination events to occur in both the immune and reproductive systems (**see section 1.2.4.1 Immunodeficiency and 1.2.4.6 Infertility**), it would be reasonable to expect that any recombination events that occur in

neuronal cells in the absence of ATM would also be detrimental. Together with endogenous DNA damage, these unrepaired recombination events could lead to disproportionate genomic instability and possible aneuploidy in the AT CNS (Iourov et al., 2009b).

In addition to DNA damage resulting directly in cellular failure, it has been proposed that this excessive unrepaired DNA damage in the CNS causes an immune response similar to that of a severe viral infection, and during the immune response, the affected PCs are cleared (Quek et al., 2016, Quek et al., 2017b, Hartlova et al., 2015). It has been reported that as a result of the loss of ATM, damaged DNA can become cytosolic and activate NFκB and the Type I Interferon System via the STING (stimulator of interferon genes) pathway (Hartlova et al., 2015, Dunphy et al., 2018, Zhang et al., 2019). Concurrently, some vertebrate models of AT also exhibit evidence of cytosolic DNA and a neuroinflammatory phenotype (Quek et al., 2016, Quek et al., 2017a, Quek et al., 2017b), while neuroinflammation is also often observed in AT patients (Verhagen et al., 2012b).

The neurodegeneration observed in DNA damage repair disorders, such as Aicardi-Goutières syndrome and cerebellar ataxias including AOA1, SCAR1 and SCAN1, and Ataxia Telangiectasia-Like disorder, Nijmegen breakage syndrome-like disorder, and Nijmegen breakage syndrome, strongly suggests that DNA damage contributes to AT. Interestingly, the relevant mutated genes in the latter three disorders *MRE11*, *Rad50*, and *Nbs1*, respectively, all function together as 'sensors' of DNA damage directly upstream of ATM in the MRN complex (**appendix 1.1, section 1.2.2 and figure 1.3 and 1.4**). However, the neurodegeneration in patients suffering from Nijmegen breakage syndrome-like disorder and Nijmegen breakage syndrome tends to be microcephaly and not ataxia, which would suggest a developmental rather than degenerative phenotype (Waltes et al., 2009, Ragamin et al., 2020). Additionally, the ataxia observed in Ataxia Telangiectasia-Like disorder has much later onset, slower progression and is less severe (Taylor et al., 2004, Palmeri et al., 2013, Fiévet et al., 2019). So while the MRN complex is the master 'sensor' of DNA damage, and although it does activate ATM, it also activates many other DNA damage repair proteins, while also being active at the site of DNA damage repair (**see section 1.2.2 and figure 1.4**).

c. Oxidative Stress and Mitochondrial Dysfunction

Evidence for redox stress and mitochondrial dysfunction being the causative mechanisms for neurodegeneration in AT is mounting. These mechanisms have also been implicated in many age-related neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease (Lin and Beal, 2006, Halliwell, 2006, Ryter et al., 2007). While the oxidative stress burden of ATM null cells will add to DNA damage experienced by these cells (Tanaka et al., 2006a), oxidative stress is likely pathogenic on its own, as treatment of ATM null models with antioxidants has been shown to lessen the severity of the neurological phenotypes observed (Browne et al., 2004, Reliene et al., 2008, Chen et al., 2003b, Gueven et al., 2006). The ATM R3047X mutation causes loss of only the last 10 amino acid residues of the ATM protein that are required for oxidative stress activation (**see section 1.2.3**). The ATM protein carrying this mutation can appropriately activate the ATM DDR pathway, but not the oxidative stress pathway (Guo et al., 2010b, Guo et al., 2010a). Furthermore, patients with this mutation are considered AT variants, since they exhibit neurodegeneration but not immunodeficiency, and only small amounts of radiosensitivity (Chessa et al., 1992, Gilad et al., 1998, Toyoshima et al., 1998, Guo et al., 2010b, Guo et al., 2010a). This pattern is consistent with other cases of variant AT, where although some patients may have a less severe or later onset of neurological symptoms, they show no great susceptibility to the other features of AT caused by deficiency in the DDR, such as infertility and immunodeficiency (Reiman et al., 2011, Verhagen et al., 2009, Verhagen et al., 2012b, Verhagen et al., 2012a). Pathological mechanisms of increased oxidative stress in the context of AT are outlined below.

i. Protein Aggregation

As previously described in **section 1.2.3**, un-attenuated oxidative stress in ATM-null cells causes defective protein turnover and aggregation (Guo et al., 2010b, Guo et al., 2010a, Lee et al., 2018), and it appears that ATM deficient cells under increased oxidative stress, decrease their protein production (Wood et al., 2011, Poletto et al., 2017), possibly as a means of tempering this aggregation. Protein aggregation is thought to be a major contributing factor in many neurodegenerative disease, such as Alzheimer's Disease, Parkinson's Disease,

Huntington's Disease, Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) and some SCAs (**see appendix 1.1 and table 1.2**), (Gandhi et al., 2019).

ii. Mitochondrial Dysfunction

One of the major contributing factors to cellular ROS is mitochondrial oxidation (Nissanka and Moraes, 2018). ATM is localised in the mitochondria during oxidative stress and plays a role in maintaining mitochondrial homeostasis (Valentin-Vega et al., 2012, Morita et al., 2014, Eaton et al., 2007). However, despite the consensus that loss of ATM causes mitochondrial dysfunction, the exact effects of loss of ATM on the mitochondria are not clear. Key findings are outlined in **table 1.3**. Furthermore, mitochondrial dysfunction has been implicated in many other neurodegenerative disorders, such as Charcot-Marie-Tooth type 2A (CMT2A), Parkinson's, Huntington's and Alzheimer's disease (Züchner et al., 2004, Dodson and Guo, 2007, Bossy-Wetzels et al., 2008, Bose and Beal, 2016).

Table 1.3 Effects of ATM deficiency on Mitochondria

Paper	Nature of ATM Deficiency	Key Findings
<i>ATM directs DNA damage responses and proteostasis via genetically separable pathways (Lee et al., 2018)</i>	<i>C2991L ATM mutant (loss of ATM oxidation specific pathway)</i>	<i>Decreased mitochondrial numbers Decreased mitophagy Aberrant fatty acid oxidation</i>
<i>Intrinsic mitochondrial dysfunction in ATM-deficient lymphoblastoid cells (Ambrose et al., 2007)</i>	<i>AT patient lymphoblasts</i>	<i>Polarised cellular organisation No difference in mitochondrial number Increased mitochondrial DNA damage Decreased membrane potential Decreased respiration and oxidation rates</i>
<i>Cancer chemoprevention by the antioxidant tempol in Atm-deficient mice. (Schubert et al., 2004)</i>	<i>ATM^{-/-} mice thymocytes</i>	<i>Decreased membrane potential</i>
<i>Mitochondrial dysfunction in ataxia-telangiectasia. (Valentin-Vega et al., 2012)</i>	<i>ATM^{-/-} mice thymocytes</i>	<i>Mitochondrial structural abnormalities Increased mitochondrial number Increased mitochondrial mass Increase in ROS Increased membrane potential Decreased mitophagy Decreased ATP levels</i>
<i>Ataxia-telangiectasia mutated kinase regulates ribonucleotide reductase and mitochondrial homeostasis. (Eaton et al., 2007)</i>	<i>At patient-derived fibroblasts</i>	<i>Decreased mitochondrial DNA levels after IR Decreased ability to increase mitochondrial mass after IR</i>
<i>Accumulation of DNA Damage and Reduced Levels of Nicotine Adenine Dinucleotide in the Brains of Atm-deficient Mice (Stern et al., 2002)</i>	<i>ATM^{-/-} mice cerebella</i>	<i>Increased respiration rates</i>
<i>Intrinsic mitochondrial DNA repair defects in Ataxia Telangiectasia. (Sharma et al., 2014)</i>	<i>A-T patient fibroblast, siRNA KD, ATM^{-/-} mice</i>	<i>Increased mitochondrial DNA damage Increased mitochondrial ROS Decreased membrane potential Decreased ATP levels</i>

d. Energy Deficiency

Neuronal cells affected by loss of ATM, such as PCs and motor and sensory neurons, are some of the largest cells in the body. These larger cells have an increased energy demand (Watts et al., 2018, Angelova and Abramov, 2018), which could put a strain on an ATM-deficient system for several reasons. First, as discussed previously, in an ATM deficient system there is a defect in glucose transportation into the cell (**see section 1.2.3 and section 1.2.4.4 above**). Second, as outlined in the section above (**1.2.4.5 b ii**), ATM plays a vital role in mitochondrial function. Loss of ATM in this capacity can have deleterious consequences for the cell, particularly regarding decreased respiration and decreased mitochondrial number, leading to a decrease in ATP levels (Lee et al., 2018, Ambrose et al., 2007, Valentin-Vega et al., 2012, Sharma et al., 2014). Therefore, in addition to having decreased availability of glucose, mitochondria in ATM deficient neurons may not be able to process the energy source sufficiently for these larger cells.

e. Conclusion

The pathogenic mechanism of neurodegeneration in AT remains poorly understood and is still much debated. Although cerebellar atrophy appears to be a relatively early event, the neurological progression of AT is variable in patients, and in some cases other movement defects may be masked by the extent of the ataxia (Churchyard et al., 1991, Willems et al., 1993, Trimis et al., 2004, Teive et al., 2018, van Egmond et al., 2015, Saunders-Pullman et al., 2012, Charlesworth et al., 2013, Klein et al., 1996, Kuhm et al., 2015, Bodensteiner et al., 1980, Nakayama et al., 2015). Current evidence supports a multi-hit model involving several of the mechanisms described above and summarised in **table 1.4**.

Table 1.4 Mechanisms of Neurodegeneration in AT

Mechanism	References
Defective DNA damage repair	(McKinnon, 2009, Biton et al., 2006, Hartlova et al., 2015, Dunphy et al., 2018, Zhang et al., 2019, Quek et al., 2016, Quek et al., 2017a, Quek et al., 2017b, Sordet et al., 2009, Sordet et al., 2010, Das et al., 2009, Alagoz et al., 2013, Katyal et al., 2014, Marabitti et al., 2019, Tresini et al., 2016, Vermeulen and Tresini, 2017, Iourov et al., 2009b, Iourov et al., 2009a, Olcina et al., 2013, Fang and Bohr, 2017)
- Neuroinflammation	
- Abortive Transcription	
- Mitochondrial DNA damage	
- Genomic Instability	
Oxidative Stress	(Tanaka et al., 2006a, Browne et al., 2004, Reliene et al., 2008, Chen et al., 2003b, Gueven et al., 2006, Guo et al., Guo et al., 2010b, Guo et al., 2010a, Hübner et al., 2014, Lolli et al., 2012, Budanov and Karin, 2008, Alexander et al., 2010, Tripathi et al., 2016, Cam et al., 2010, Zhang et al., 2015b, Valentin-Vega and Kastan, 2012, Valentin-Vega et al., 2012, Fang et al., 2016, Qi et al., 2016, Gu et al., 2018)
-Redox stress due to deficiencies in the oxidative stress pathway	
-Increased ROS from mitochondrial dysfunction	
-Decreased autophagy/mitophagy	
Energy Deficiency	(Yang and Kastan, 2000, Ching et al., 2013, Peretz et al., 2001, Viniestra et al., 2005, Halaby et al., 2008, Jeong et al., 2010, Sano et al., 2003, Andrisse et al., 2013, Ambrose et al., 2007, Eaton et al., 2007, Sharma et al., 2014, Valentin-Vega and Kastan, 2012, Valentin-Vega et al., 2012, Kamsler et al., 2001, Stern et al., 2002)
-Inability to get sufficient glucose into neuronal cells	
-Mitochondrial dysfunction leading to decreased respiration	

1.2.4.6 Infertility

Infertility in AT exists on a spectrum, ranging from complete infertility and no onset of puberty in classical AT, to a much more diverse presentation in variant AT, where some variant AT patients have fathered offspring or had more than one successful pregnancy (Nissenkorn et al., 2016, Verhagen et al., 2012a, Dawson et al., 2015, Takubo et al., 2006, Strich, 1966). Infertility in classical AT is a symptom of gonadal dysfunction due to meiotic failure, as ATM plays a key role in the DNA repair after meiotic recombination events (Nissenkorn et al., 2016, Paiano et al., 2020, Di Siena et al., 2018, Hamer et al., 2004, Cooper et al., 2014, Lange et al., 2011).

While infertility in classical AT is due to a failure in the DDR and therefore complete arrest in meiosis, infertility in variant AT may be more complex. Variant AT patients exist on a spectrum of fertility that may be unrelated to meiotic failure, particularly in female AT patients. Female AT patients have been shown to have an increase in gonadotropic hormones such as luteinising hormone (LH) and follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) (Nissenkorn et al., 2016, Ammann et al., 1970, Zadik et al., 1978). These patients present on a spectrum, from normal sexual development, to varying degrees of amenorrhea, to no onset of puberty. The elevation of these hormones may be due to primary ovary dysfunction arising from meiotic failure, but may also indicate a role for ATM outside meiosis in reproductive function by mediating sex hormone signalling. Female AT patients have been shown to have low levels of oestrogen (Zadik et al., 1978), and ATM is known to function in other hormone signalling pathways, such as insulin and IGF-I (**see section 1.2.4.4 Metabolic Dysregulation above**). Additional support for this is provided by the fact that polymorphisms in the ATM gene are thought to be a contributing factor to PCOS (Schweighofer et al., 2014, Ornik and Ferk, 2013). Women with PCOS experience reversible infertility due to high levels of androgens, LH, and circulating insulin due to insulin resistance (Wang et al., 2019, Goodarzi et al., 2011). This perhaps indicates a shared dysregulated pathway and suggests that infertility in variant female AT patients may not be due to a primary failure of meiosis or the resultant secondary irregular hormone levels, but a primary dysregulation in hormone signalling pathways.

It has been noted that AT seems to affect female sufferers more severely, particularly concerning growth retardation. It has been hypothesised that the smaller stature of female AT patients is due to the lack of a growth spurt during puberty. However, as slight differences in size can be detected in mid childhood well before the onset of puberty would be expected, ovarian atrophy cannot account for all of this decrease in size compared to males (Nissenkorn et al., 2016). Therefore, the reason that AT appears to affect female patients to a greater degree than male patients is not yet wholly understood.

Because infertility in AT is not a life-limiting aspect, or a major barrier to quality of life, gonadal dysfunction and hormone dysregulation are not well characterised in AT patients. Gonadal dysfunction has however been well characterised in animal models of the disease, and so will be discussed in more detail in relation to the results in **chapter 4**.

1.2.4.7 Premature Ageing

Premature ageing seems to be an overarching facet of AT since many AT symptoms such as infertility, immune deficiency, fatty liver disease, and cancer are hallmarks of ageing. Additionally, AT patients look physically aged, with features such as greying thinning hair and thinning skin (Reed et al., 1966). Many of the ageing features of AT are attributable to defects in specific systems, such as the immune and reproductive systems. However, there is a particular cellular ageing phenotype associated with AT that is likely to contribute to the less well defined ageing axis. Interestingly, there is evidence suggesting that SNPs in the ATM promoter region which increase ATM expression are associated with increased longevity in Chinese and Italian populations (Piaceri et al., 2013, Chen et al., 2010). This is supported by the finding that increased expression of ATM in a mouse model of ageing increased longevity by prolonging ATM mediated DNA damage repair, which is thought to decline with age (Qian et al., 2018).

Early in the investigation of the AT phenotype, it was noted that AT patients had increased cellular senescence (Shiloh et al., 1982). Senescence is an irreversible cellular protective mechanism that stops the proliferation of damaged cells and is therefore considered to function in tumour suppression, embryonic

development, and tissue repair, and is heavily implicated in ageing. In addition to stopping the propagation of the damaged cell, senescence is also associated with the senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP), where senescent cells secrete pro-inflammatory and matrix-degrading markers to evoke an immune response and clearing of the damaged cells (Childs et al., 2015, Loaiza and Demaria, 2016). In AT, given the increased level of unresolved cellular stress, due to failures in the DDR and the oxidative stress response, it is not surprising that cells become senescent. Consequently, it is likely that a prolonged SASP is responsible for the aged appearance of AT individuals.

ATM is also a mediator of cellular senescence, however, the precise role of ATM in cellular senescence is still debated, as some studies show that ATM positively regulates senescence, while others argue that it negatively regulates it (Zhan et al., 2010, Nair et al., 2015, Luo et al., 2014, Mallette et al., 2007, Zhao et al., 2020a, Liu et al., 2013, Sasaki et al., 2008, Kuk et al., 2019).

1.2.4.8 Radiosensitivity

Radiosensitivity is an ambiguous term, and from a medical perspective can refer to radiation induced cancers, non-cancerous effects due to cellular transformation, such as cataracts, or non-cancerous tissue events that are due to cellular death, such as skin burns (Britel et al., 2018). AT is considered *the* most radiosensitive human disease, and in the context of discussion of AT, radiosensitivity generally refers to cellular death as a result of ionising radiation (Berthel et al., 2019b, Deschavanne and Fertil, 1996). The best determinant of the radiosensitivity of cells is their survival fraction at 2 Gy (SF2) (Deschavanne and Fertil, 1996). Homozygous ATM null human cells have an SF2 between 1-10%, compared to Fanconi anaemia cells, with an SF2 of between 10-50%, and control cells with an SF2 of 50-80% (Berthel et al., 2019b).

Ionising radiation can have many effects on cellular homeostasis, such as production of ROS, disruption of lipid membranes, and the oxidative/reductive posttranslational modification of cytoplasmic proteins (Reisz et al., 2014). However, the area of the cell most sensitive to the effects of ionising radiation is the nucleus and DNA in particular, where ionising radiation causes ds DNA

breaks. Therefore, there is a strong inverse correlation between the repair of DNA damage and radiosensitivity, where less DNA repair results in increased radiosensitivity (Berthel et al., 2019a). The consensus on this correlation is so strong that the terms are often used interchangeably.

Individual radiosensitivity is predicted by the RIANS model (Radiation Induced ATM Nucleoshuttling) (Bodgi and Foray, 2016, Granzotto et al., 2016). This model proposes that ATM exists in inactive dimers in the cytoplasm. Ionising radiation then directly triggers the autophosphorylation and subsequent monomersisation of ATM in a dose dependant manner. These active ATM monomers, but not the dimers, are able to diffuse into the nucleus and activate the DDR cascade. Therefore, delays in the nucleoshuttling of ATM to the nucleus, due to causes such as expression levels, delayed activation, or interaction of ATM with cytosolic proteins are thought to determine an individual's radiosensitivity (Granzotto et al., 2016). Consequently, the radiosensitivity exhibited by AT patients is attributed to the deficiency in DNA repair, resulting in cellular death (Foray et al., 1997, Joubert et al., 2008).

While this increased radiosensitivity exhibited by AT patients is pathogenic on its own, it also has serious consequences for the treatment of AT associated malignancies. As radiotherapy and chemotherapeutic DNA damaging drugs are generally the prescribed treatment for malignancies in the general population, the increased sensitivity of AT patients to treatment with these can often cause secondary fatal pathologies (van Os et al., 2017a).

1.2.4.9 ATM mutation carriers

ATM mutation carrier heterozygotes are at an increased risk of heart disease and cancer, with female ATM mutant heterozygotes having a 5-fold increased risk of breast cancer (Swift, 2001, Maillet et al., 2002, d'Almeida et al., 2005, Bubien et al., 2017, van Os et al., 2016). ATM carriers also exhibit abnormal levels of radiosensitivity and chromosomal instability, as evidenced by higher rates of adverse effects during radiotherapy treatment (Chen et al., 1978, Cohen et al., 1975, Cole et al., 1988, Fernet et al., 2004, Neubauer et al., 2002, Pernin et al., 1999, Varghese et al., 1999, Mou et al., 2020).

1.3 Current Animal Models of Ataxia Telangiectasia

To date, a number of animal models of AT have been developed, and these are summarised in **table 1.5**, as well as further delineated in the sections below. Each model organism has advantages and disadvantages as an AT model. Phenotypes which are shared between the vertebrate models are summarised in **figure 1.9**.

Table 1.5 Animal Models of AT

Mutation	Histology/ Cellular and Molecular Pathology	Behavioural Phenotype
Drosophila		
ATM temperature induced KD by RNAi (Rimkus et al., 2008, Rimkus et al., 2010)	Progressive photoreceptor neuron degeneration by apoptosis due to re-entry into the cell cycle. ATM KD eventually leads to lethality	Not studied
ATM ⁸ (Temperature induced loss of kinase activity) (Petersen et al., 2013, Petersen et al., 2012, Pedersen et al., 2010)	Neuroinflammation and apoptotic glia lead to neurodegeneration and lethality	Walking, flying and climbing defects. Also inability to right themselves when on their back. The severity of the behavioural defects correlated with reduced kinase activity.
Zebrafish		
ATM Morpholino (MO) KD	Radiosensitivity and lethality	Not Studied
Mouse		
ATM ^{-/-} (mutation in exons 40/41) (Barlow et al., 1996)	Radiosensitivity and genomic instability but no abnormal cerebellar morphology	Motor defects
ATM ^{-/-} (mutation in exon 62/63) (Xu and Baltimore, 1996, Kuljis et al., 1997)	Subtle lesions in all three cerebellar layers (molecular, Purkinje and granular) by electron microscopy. Purkinje cell dendrites are dystrophic with increased mitochondrial density. Neuroinflammation characterised by microglial activation	Not studied
ATM ^{-/-} (deletion of exons 57/58) (Herzog et al., 1998)	No radiation induced cell death in hippocampal dentate gyrus, retina, cerebellum, and cerebral cortex compared with WT controls	Not studied
ATM ^{-/-} (mutation in exon 37) (Elson et al., 1996)	ATM deficient mice brain 20% smaller than WT controls. Decrease in dopaminergic neurons.	Motor defects observed that were corrected with administration of L-dopa. ATM ^{-/-} mice are significantly more reactive to amphetamine
ATM ^{y/y} (mutation in exon 51/55) (Borghesani et al., 2000)	Abnormal pattern of Purkinje dendritic growth and decrease in thickness of the molecular layer with ectopically placed Purkinje cells	Motor learning deficits

<i>ATM^{ΔSR1/ΔSR1}</i> Knock in model (Spring et al., 2001)	No observed effects	None
<i>ATM^{tm1Mmpl}</i> (mutation in exon 4) (Campbell et al., 2015)	Observed some changes in Purkinje cell number and dendrite morphology but these changes were inconsistent and had no statistical significance.	Some motor defects
<i>ATM^{KD/KD}</i> (Yamamoto et al., 2012b)	Die in early embryonic development	N/A
<i>ATM^{KD/KD}</i> (Daniel et al., 2012)	Die in early embryonic development	N/A

Rat

<i>ATM^{-/-}</i> (mutation in exon 13 (Quek et al., 2016, Quek et al., 2017a, Quek et al., 2017b)	Progressive loss of motor neurons with remaining neurons positive for cytosolic DNA and apoptosis markers. However, no difference in cerebellum, or Purkinje cell morphology, however Purkinje cells show strong signal for cytoplasmic DNA. Rats also exhibited evidence of neuroinflammation.	Loss of use and paralysis of hind limbs
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Porcine

<i>ATM^{-/-}</i> (mutation in exon 57) (Beraldi et al., 2015, Beraldi et al., 2017)	Reduced number of Purkinje cells from birth which continues through development. Purkinje cell dendrites were also abnormally angled with respect to the soma in adulthood. No difference observed in granular layer.	Unable to fully perform behavioural tests and had severe gait instability
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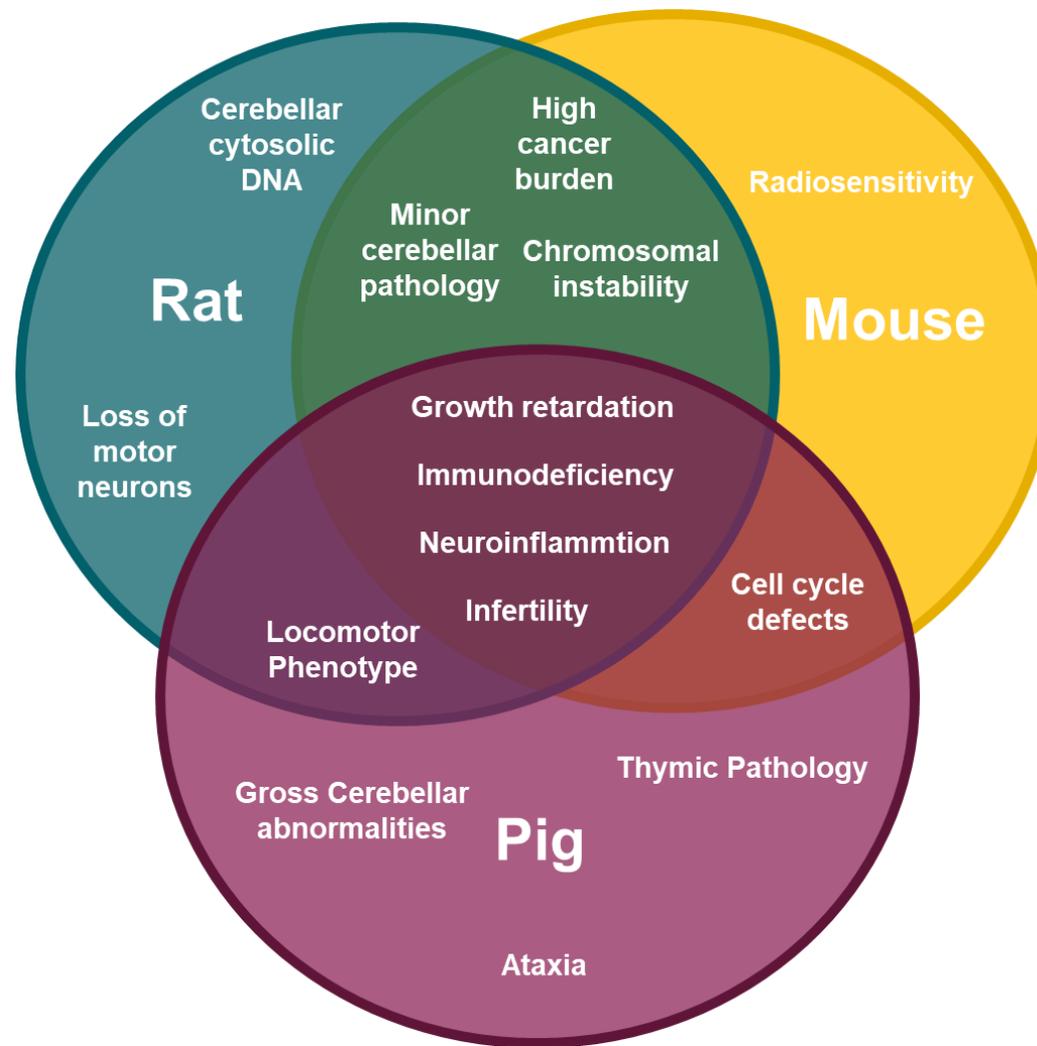


Figure 1.9 Overview of overlapping phenotypes exhibited by vertebrate models of AT. Note that although a vertebrate model, zebrafish are not included as only preliminary investigations up to 3 dpf have been published, and the results sections of this thesis will present new results obtained during this project.

1.3.1 Drosophila

ATM is conserved in *Drosophila* and its function is crucial for managing DNA damage and telomere length maintenance, as it is in mammals (Song et al., 2004). However, unlike mammals, ATM in *drosophila* is essential for development, and loss of ATM leads to lethality (Silva et al., 2004, Song et al., 2004, Rimkus et al., 2010, Rimkus et al., 2008). Therefore, AT models in *drosophila* have utilised conditional knockdown (KD) of the gene, first by temperature dependant RNAi (Rimkus et al., 2010, Rimkus et al., 2008) and secondly by a temperature dependent mutant ATM allele (ATM^{δ}) where the final amino acid of the FATC domain is mutated from a leucine to a phenylalanine causing survival of the pupae at 18°, but loss of ATM activity and subsequent lethality when the temperature is raised to 25° (Pedersen et al., 2010, Petersen et al., 2012, Petersen et al., 2013).

Using the inducible KD, it is possible to generate adult flies and then perform ATM KD. In these animals there is caspase 3 dependent progressive degeneration of photoreceptor neurons that are post mitotic. This apoptotic cell death was associated with prior re-entry into the cell cycle at S phase by these post mitotic neurons (Rimkus et al., 2008). Moreover, this re-entry into the cell cycle was found to be associated with increased DNA damage due to loss of ATM (Rimkus et al., 2010). Importantly, it should be noted that neurodegeneration appeared to be the cause of lethality in this model, as both global and neuron specific induced loss of ATM caused death.

Drosophila with the temperature dependant ATM^{δ} allele also show progressive caspase 3 mediated apoptotic neuronal death after loss of ATM kinase activity. Moreover, in addition to neuronal death, the majority of caspase 3 positive cells were glia. Neuroinflammation has been associated with neurodegeneration in AT patients (**see section 1.2.4.5**) as well as mouse, rat and pig models of AT (**see below and table 1.3**). Preceding cell death, neuronal cells in the ATM^{δ} *drosophila* model were found to have an increase in expression of innate immune response genes, particularly in glial cells. Furthermore, glial specific KD of ATM by RNAi was enough to induce this neuroinflammation and cause death of neurons, while neuron specific KD of ATM did not cause a neurodegenerative phenotype or increase in inflammation. Loss of ATM kinase

activity in drosophila is also associated with a motility defect and decrease longevity, most likely due to neuronal loss (Petersen et al., 2012, Petersen et al., 2013).

1.3.2 Zebrafish

Currently the only published zebrafish model uses a transient morpholino (MO) KD of ATM and this has only been partially characterised within the first few days post fertilisation (dpf). It was found that ATM MO zebrafish are highly sensitive to ionising radiation and die by 72 hpf (Imamura and Kishi, 2005). It should be noted that ATM morphant zebrafish described by Imamura and Kishi (2005) likely express a kinase dead ATM protein and not KD of expression of ATM. The implications of this are discussed in detail in **section 3.3.2.3**.

1.3.3 Mouse

Mice are the most common vertebrate model organism, and within 5 years of the discovery of the *ATM* gene, 6 AT knockout (KO) mouse models had been created (Barlow et al., 1996, Xu et al., 1996, Kuljis et al., 1997, Herzog et al., 1998, Elson et al., 1996, Borghesani et al., 2000). The majority of mouse models of AT are knockouts, aiming to replicate the most common genotype associated with AT (Cardiff, 2017) but there are also some knock in (KI) models (Spring et al., 2001, Chen et al., 2003b, Daniel et al., 2012, Yamamoto et al., 2012b). While the mouse model has vastly aided the study of this disease, and although it recapitulates the pleiotropic effects of ATM deficiency relatively well, it fails to exhibit any gross neurological changes.

The formation of tumours, particularly lymphomas, are very prevalent in mouse models and the animal usually succumbs to these at a young age. It had been previously hypothesised that these mouse models may exhibit significant neurological defects at a later stage, but owing to the presence of tumours do not survive that long. However, Campbell et al. (2015) created a mouse model that more accurately represents the tumour rate seen in AT patients (10-20%) and as such, the mice lived significantly longer than previous mouse models.

Nevertheless, these animals also failed to demonstrate any gross cerebellar defects or an obvious locomotor phenotype. However, some mouse models have exhibited slight motor defects, ectopic PC localisation and neuroinflammation (Campbell et al., 2015, Borghesani et al., 2000).

Consistently, ATM KO mouse models exhibit infertility which is a key aspect of AT in patients. ATM deficient testes in mice appear morphologically normal and have evidence of developing sperm having gone through mitosis but not meiosis (Barlow et al., 1996, Elson et al., 1996, Spring et al., 2001, Xu et al., 1996). Similar results were also observed in female mice, with failure to produce mature oocytes in the ovaries. This halting of germ cell development has been attributed to failure of the ATM deficient system to successfully complete meiotic recombination (Xu et al., 1996, Barlow et al., 1998, Di Siena et al., 2018).

1.3.4 Rat

To date, two models of AT in rats have been developed; a KO rat model with an 8 bp deletion mutation (Quek et al., 2017a), and a missense mutation where amino acid 2262 has a leucine to proline mutation and consequently reduced kinase activity (Quek et al., 2017b). While KO rats continue to have a significant tumour burden, particularly T cell lymphomas and leukaemias (Quek et al., 2017a), the model does demonstrate a significant motor defect with progressive hind leg paralysis. This paralysis correlated with a loss of motor neurons and strong evidence of neuroinflammation thought to be brought about by cytosolic DNA (Hartlova et al., 2015). In common with mouse models, no gross defects of the cerebellum were observed, but there was strong evidence of neuroinflammation and PCs contained cytosolic DNA. As with both AT patients and mouse models, the rat KO model of AT also shows infertility, with failure to complete meiosis (Quek et al., 2017a).

In common with the KO model, the missense rat model also exhibited hind leg paralysis, infertility, and a significant T cell derived tumour burden. ATM missense rats also exhibited neuroinflammation due to cytosolic DNA, although not to the same extent as ATM KO (Quek et al., 2017b).

Current vertebrate models recapitulate well most aspects of the AT disease except for gross neurodegeneration. Organisation, cell types, and molecules of the cerebellum are well conserved between rodents and humans (Goldowitz and Hamre, 1998), therefore, it is not known why a similar neurophenotype is not observed in AT models. One explanation is that rodents have some sort of redundancy for ATM that is neuroprotective. If this was the case then why does this redundancy not protect them against the other effects of ATM loss; why is it neuro-specific? One of the major differences between rodent and human CNS is the size and volume of the neurons. The lesser demand of a smaller cell on an ATM deficient single nucleus cell in terms of energy demand or redox stress may be the deciding factor in AT neuropathogenesis. Conversely, it may be the comparative life spans of human and rodent, whereby the 2-3 years of a rodent life span may not be enough to pass a threshold level of DNA damage.

1.3.5 Pig

Yucatan pigs are miniature pigs which owing to their small size have been used in research for decades (Kim et al., 2015, Panepinto et al., 1982, Boakye et al., 2020). Recently, a porcine KO AT model has been developed. As a larger vertebrate, this appeared to recapitulate the symptoms of AT better than the rodent models. It does exhibit an ataxia-like phenotype linked to a decrease in PC cell number from birth, and an atypical topology of PCs in adults in ATM^{-/-} mutants. ATM deficient pigs also exhibited a thinning of the motor cortex. Investigation of female KO pigs showed small ovaries, and a halting a follicular development. These animals were unsurprisingly infertile, and had dramatically decreased amounts of circulating oestrogen. Interestingly, male KO pigs did produce mature sperm, although sperm levels in ATM KO pigs were much decreased compared to wild type controls. Additionally, male pigs were able to impregnate females, although the resultant litter sizes were much smaller. However, despite male ATM KO pigs having mature functional sperm, they did exhibit some cytoplasmic morphological abnormalities (Beraldi et al., 2015, Beraldi et al., 2017).

1.4 Zebrafish as a Model Organism

Zebrafish models are a relatively new tool in biological studies. Their use has seen a vast explosion over the past few years (**figure 1.10**), owing to the fact that they share many physiological, genetic, anatomical and biochemical similarities with humans, but particularly since their genome has been fully sequenced (Howe et al., 2013, Kettleborough et al., 2013), and since the introduction of CRISPR technology (Cong et al., 2013, Mali et al., 2013, Chang et al., 2013, Hwang et al., 2013).

Zebrafish as a model organism offer several advantages over conventional models such as rodents. Zebrafish embryos are fertilised and develop externally from the mother, which allows for easy tracking of development, with most organ systems being functional within a few days of fertilisation (Kimmel et al., 1995). Embryos are also transparent, allowing for easy *in vivo* imaging, and can be kept alive in an appropriate mounting media to facilitate live imaging studies. Additionally, zebrafish embryos are genetically tractable, which has allowed for development of a whole range of knockout models to aid in the investigation of many different diseases and developmental processes (Cong et al., 2013, Chang et al., 2013, Hwang et al., 2013, Zhang et al., 2016). Knock in models and transgenic lines can also be created (Thakur and Welford, 2020, Lin et al., 1994, Emelyanov et al., 2006, Armstrong et al., 2016, Prykhozhij et al., 2018). In contrast to rodent and higher vertebrate models, zebrafish are also cheaper to house, require less husbandry, and tend to live longer (Kimmel et al., 1995). Furthermore, from a single pairing of adult zebrafish a large clutch of a few hundred embryos can be gathered. This and their small size makes them ideal for high throughput studies (Cornet et al., 2018, Deveau et al., 2017, Liu et al., 2016a). A further aspect that makes them conducive to high throughput screen studies is that their behaviour has been well characterised, and perturbations of that behaviour can be studied and used as a disease/dysfunction readout out, particularly where neurological diseases are considered (Norton and Bally-Cuif, 2010, Deakin et al., 2019, Plaut, 2000, Basnet et al., 2019).

However, it should be noted that zebrafish do pose some limitations as a model organism. First, they are further away in the evolutionary tree to humans

than higher vertebrate models, therefore it should be considered that some biological process and pathways may have been lost or altered. In addition to this, the zebrafish genome underwent a duplication event, and while selective pressure has forced many of the duplications to be lost, about 20% remain (Amores et al., 1998, Christoffels et al., 2004, Meyer and Van de Peer, 2005). Therefore, it should be considered if a particular gene of interest has been duplicated and if so, whether its paralogue maintains the same function (Force et al., 1999, Postlethwait, 2006). Second, one of the major constraints of zebrafish research is the lack of antibodies (Villarreal et al., 2017), which slows progress in research and closes some avenues of investigation.

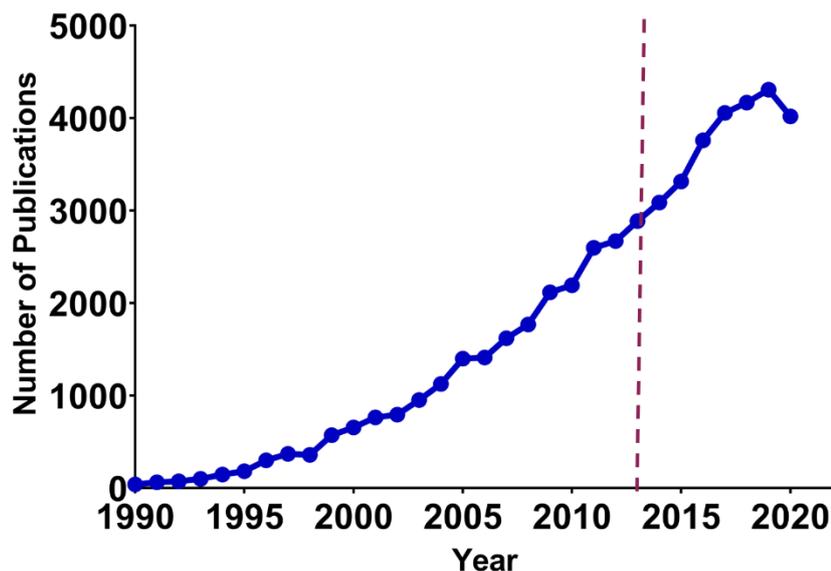


Figure 1.10 Number of zebrafish publications per year from 1990-2020 from a Web of Knowledge database search. Dashed line represents first publications of use of CRISPR in zebrafish (2013).

1.4.1 Zebrafish as a Model for Neurological Disease

Thus far, a number of neurodegenerative disorders have been modelled in zebrafish, such as Frontotemporal Lobar Degeneration (FTLD), ALS, Parkinson's disease, Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease, and Huntington's disease (Kabashi et al., 2010, Schmid et al., 2013, Mori et al., 2013, Ciura et al., 2013, Fett et al., 2010, Sheng et al., 2010, Lumsden et al., 2007, Henshall et al., 2009, Ponomareva et al., 2016). However, modelling of these diseases in zebrafish does have some disadvantages. Most neurodegenerative diseases are late onset and tend to occur due to accumulative pathologies in the cells of the CNS. As the fish ages, recognising subtle phenotypes becomes more difficult and imaging becomes more problematic. Furthermore, adult zebrafish have a remarkable capacity for neurogenesis (Becker et al., 1997, Kizil et al., 2012) which may obscure neurodegeneration.

One of the advantages of modelling neurodegenerative diseases in zebrafish is that gross morphology and cell type within the brain are well conserved between humans and zebrafish (Turner et al., 2014), particularly in the cerebellum which contains a distinct granule cell layer, Purkinje cell layer, and molecular layer (Bae et al., 2009, Hamling et al., 2015).

So far a number of cerebellar degenerative diseases and ataxias have been modelled in zebrafish. A model of Spinocerebellar Ataxia 3 in zebrafish exhibited a motor defect where transgenic zebrafish carrying the mutant human ataxin 3 protein showed a decrease in swimming ability (Watchon et al., 2017). This has also been seen in zebrafish models of ataxias caused by lysosomal storage disorders (Lin et al., 2018), and a zebrafish model of Spinocerebellar Ataxia 13 (Namikawa et al., 2019b, Namikawa et al., 2019a). A zebrafish model of the ataxia causing disease Marinesco-Sjögren Syndrome has shown cerebellar degeneration, as has a model of classic late infantile neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis (CLN2) (Kawahara and Hayashi, 2016, Mahmood et al., 2013). This evidence suggests that cerebellar degeneration and the resultant ataxia can be modelled using zebrafish.

1.4.2 Zebrafish as a Model for DNA Damage Repair

Zebrafish represent an epitome organism for modelling DNA damage repair mechanisms. In eukaryotes a number of DNA damage repair pathways exist, specifically, direct reversal, base excision repair, mismatch repair, nucleotide excision repair, nonhomologous end joining (NHEJ), homologous recombination, translation synthesis, and p53-mediated surveillance (Pei and Strauss, 2013). Zebrafish have orthologues of genes that function in all these pathways ([Zebrafish Genome - GRCz11 Ensembl \(last updated Nov 2020\)](#)), and some of these repair pathways, such as NHEJ and homologous recombination, are exploited to create CRISPR/Cas9 induced frame shift KO mutations and KI mutants respectively. Furthermore, although the zebrafish genome underwent a duplication event during evolution (Amores et al., 1998, Christoffels et al., 2004, Meyer and Van de Peer, 2005), only ~10% of the 684 DDR associated genes are found to be still duplicated (Cayuela et al., 2019). As ATM primarily functions in homologous recombination (Kocher and Dahm-Daphi, 2010), zebrafish and homologous recombination mutant models will be discussed below.

1.4.2.1 Homologous Recombination in Zebrafish

Homologous Recombination (HR) in zebrafish is only starting to be decoded, and as such only a small number of zebrafish mutants for HR proteins exist (Ramanagoudr-Bhojappa et al., 2018, Rodriguez-Mari et al., 2010, Botthof et al., 2017, Liu et al., 2003, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). However, as HR in general is well conserved in both lower and higher eukaryotes, and as zebrafish have orthologues of most genes associated with HR (Pei and Strauss, 2013), it can be assumed that HR is also well conserved in Zebrafish (Fan et al., 2006).

HR occurs in the S phase of the cell cycle during DNA replication as it requires a sister chromatid to act as a template for repair. However, there is data that suggests that the predominant DNA repair pathway in the very early stages of zebrafish embryogenesis is alternative end joining (alt-EJ) (Thyme and Schier, 2016). This is an error prone repair pathway, which uses some of the components of the HR pathway to resect the 5' end of the damaged DNA to points of microhomology (2-20 bp), these microhomology points are then bridged and the

remaining 3' flap (which is complementary to the resected 5' end) is cleaved. Therefore, this pathway has the potential to introduce large chromosomal deletions as well as translocations (Sallmyr and Tomkinson, 2018) and the reason that the embryo favours this error prone pathway is not known. It is not lack of maternally contributed HR machinery, as Rad51, which is essential for HR, is expressed in Rad51 KO zebrafish derived from a Rad51 heterozygous in-cross at the one cell stage (Botthof et al., 2017). It could be that the embryo promotes this erroneous DNA repair pathway to espouse rapid cellular proliferation, instead of allowing a temporary halting of the cell cycle and therefore slowing of proliferation to repair the damage in the case of HR. It should be noted that it is not known exactly when this preference stops and HR commences. However, complete abolition of the HR pathway by double KO of *rad51* and *rad51L1* leads to embryonic lethality before 6 hpf (Botthof et al., 2017), and HR can be forced at the one cell stage (Pi et al., 2020).

In terms of HR zebrafish mutants, the best characterised are zebrafish with mutations in the genes that function in the Fanconi anaemia/BRCA pathway. This pathway has 22 associated genes, and mutations in these genes cause the heterogeneous disease Fanconi anaemia (Mamrak et al., 2017). This pathway includes the *brca2* protein which is a direct target of ATM kinase activity (Wang et al., 2010b). Mutation of the 22 genes in this pathway in zebrafish enhances sensitivity to DNA damage and infertility due to failure in meiotic HR and therefore the inability to produce mature gametes. Furthermore, zebrafish in this pathway exhibit an unusual phenotype of female to male sex reversal (Ramanagoudr-Bhojappa et al., 2018, Rodriguez-Mari et al., 2010, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010, Vierstraete et al., 2017).

1.5 Project Rationale

Ataxia Telangiectasia is a juvenile onset, autosomal recessive, life limiting disease that is characterised by progressive ataxia, a high cancer burden, metabolic dysregulation, immunodeficiencies, infertility, radiosensitivity and premature aging. Although AT is associated with a plethora of devastating conditions, progressive ataxia is one of the biggest barriers to quality of life of AT

patients. The ataxia exhibited by AT patients is associated with neurodegeneration as a result of Purkinje cell loss in the cerebellum. Despite intensive research, the exact mechanisms of neurodegeneration and Purkinje cells loss in AT are not well understood. This is in large part due to the lack of an appropriate vertebrate AT model that faithfully recapitulates the neurodegenerative phenotype associated with AT and that is conducive to large-scale experimentation. While the porcine model of AT does largely recapitulate the neurodegenerative and behavioural phenotype associated with AT, the cost of large-scale experimentation on this model can be prohibitive. Furthermore, the use of large numbers of higher vertebrates for scientific research where there is an alternative is not in line with the 3Rs principles of Reduction, Refinement, Replacement. Therefore, we propose the development of a zebrafish model of AT, as the DNA damage pathways appears to be well conserved between zebrafish and humans, they have previously been used to model other neurodegenerative disease, and are highly advantageous for high throughput drug screening.

Zebrafish with a predicted truncating mutation in ATM, similar to mutations found in AT patients, had already been created with the use of CRISPR/Cas9 by Dr Ringaile Zaksauskaite (Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology), under the supervision of Professor Sherif El-Khamisy (Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology) and Dr Freek van Eeden (Department of Biomedical Science), as part of her PhD. The mutant allele was designated *sh477*. However, these mutant zebrafish remained uninvestigated and uncharacterised. Therefore, our aim was to investigate these fish with respect to the following questions:

- Does the introduction of the *sh477* mutation cause ablation of ATM signalling in zebrafish through either loss of protein expression, or loss of function?

Do $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish recapitulate any aspects of the AT disease related to defects in DNA damage repair, such as radiosensitivity, immunodeficiencies or infertility?

To determine if $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutant zebrafish exhibit any behavioural abnormalities that may be related to an ataxia like phenotype.

- To determine if $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit a phenotype due to loss of ATM function that may be exploited as a read out in high throughput drug screening for therapeutic targets.

Chapter 2

Materials and Methods

2.1 General Zebrafish Methods

2.1.1 Zebrafish Maintenance and Breeding

Zebrafish were housed in the Bateson Centre Aquarium at the University of Sheffield. The Zebrafish were maintained at 28 °C in 14 hrs light and 10 hrs dark cycle. All experiments were conducted in line with Home Office guidelines for animal research, in accordance with the Animal Scientific Procedures Act (ASPA) 1986 under the authority of project licences 70/8309 and PP2798691.

For the generation of embryos through mass spawning, the evening prior to spawning, two containers were placed in the home tank, one inside the other, with the inner container containing a mesh bottom and marbles laid on top (**see figure 2.1 a**). Zebrafish embryos were collected from the group spawning the following morning.

For individual pair mating, one male and one female zebrafish were paired in a tank containing a divider the evening prior to spawning. In the morning, at the beginning of the light cycle, dividers were removed, and the pairing tanks tilted slight to encourage spawning (**see figure 2.1 b**).

Embryos were collected and sorted into groups of 60 in 10 cm dishes at approximately 4 hours post fertilisation (hpf). Embryos were maintained in E3 medium (NaCl 5mM, 0.17 mM KCl, 0.33 mM CaCl₂, 0.33 mM MgSO₄, 0.0001% methylene blue) at 28 °C. Zebrafish intended for raising were transferred to aquarium tanks at 5 dpf and maintained as above.

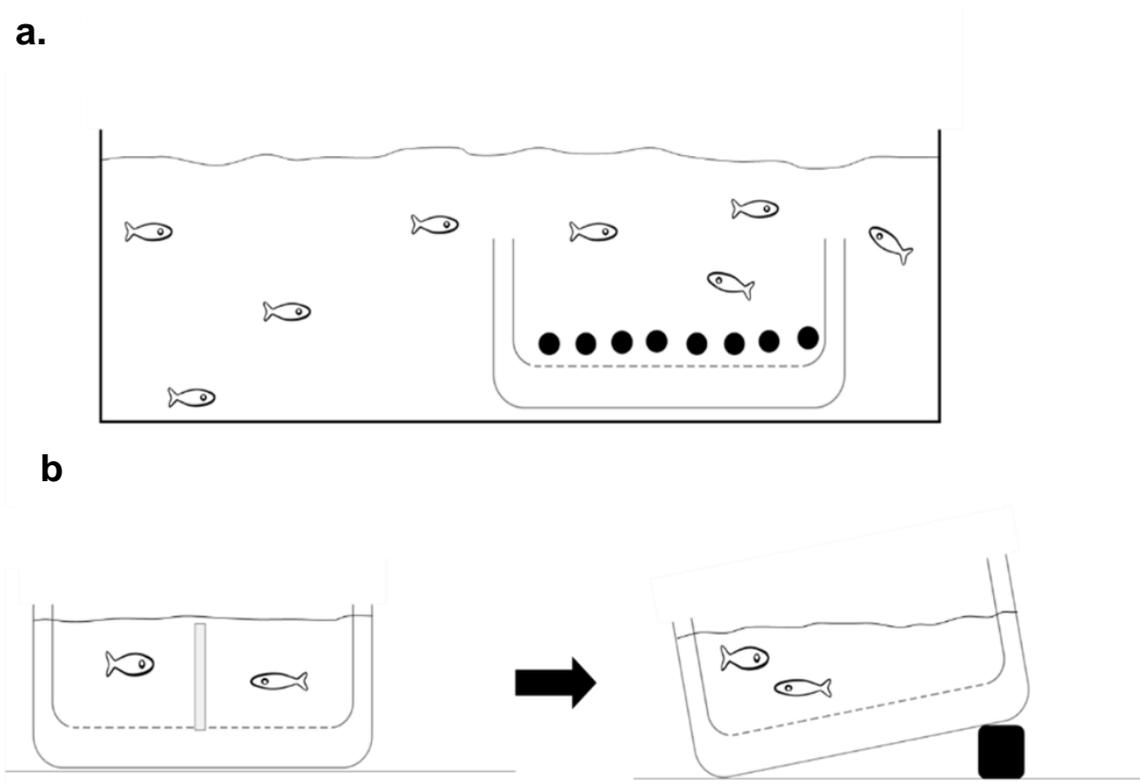


Figure 2.1 Methods of zebrafish breeding **a.** breeding of zebrafish through group spawning by placing two plastic containers at the bottom of the tank, one inside the other. The inner container has a mesh bottom covered by marbles to allow for protection and easy collection of embryos. **b.** Pair mating of zebrafish, where the evening prior to spawning, a male and female are placed inside a container similar to **a.** with a divider between them. The following morning the divider is removed and the tank tilted slightly to encourage spawning.

2.1.2 Generation of Mutant Zebrafish

ATM^{sh477/sh477} and TDP1^{sh475/sh475} mutant zebrafish were generated using CRISPR/Cas9 by Ringaile Zaksauskaite in the department of Biomedical Sciences at the University of Sheffield. These fish were gifted to our lab at 7 months old. The ATM^{SH477} allele has a 5 base pair (bp) deletion in exon 6, and the TDP1^{SH475} allele has a 4 bp deletion in exon 2. Both deletions result in a frameshift mutation and subsequently to downstream premature stop codons.

2.1.3 Anaesthesia

To terminally anaesthetise, zebrafish were treated with Tricaine (400 mg Tricaine powder (Sigma, #A-5040), 97.9 ml dH₂O, ~2.1 ml 1M Tris (pH 9), adjusted if required to pH 7), diluted to 30 ml Tricaine solution per 100 ml of aquarium water for 20 minutes. For use as an anaesthetic, zebrafish larvae and adults were treated with Tricaine diluted to 4.2 ml per 100 ml aquarium water and moved to fresh water after 5 minutes.

2.1.4 Adult Tail Biopsy

Adult Zebrafish were anaesthetised as described above (**section 2.1.3**). While anaesthetised, a small section from the end of the caudal fin was cut using a scalpel blade and transferred to a microliter plate containing 20 µl of QuickExtract™ solution (Epicentre Biotechnologies).

2.2 Genotyping of the ATM Allele

2.2.1 DNA Extraction

Whole embryos/larvae were placed in individual wells of a 96 well plate and 20 µl QuickExtract™ solution was added to each well. Plates were incubated at 65° C for 2 hours and then 99° C for a further 2 mins. When embryos were required for RNA extraction and first required genotyping, under terminal aesthetic, tails were clipped under a dissecting microscope and treated as above. The body was kept for RNA extraction by preserving it at -80° C. For adult genotyping, tail biopsies, as described in **section 2.1.4**, were treated as above.

2.2.2 Amplification of Zebrafish DNA by Polymerase Chain Reaction

A standard PCR was used for genotyping with a reaction mix containing a final concentration of 1X FIREPol® (Solis Biodyne, OÜ, Tartu, Estonia), 1 µM each of forward and reverse primers (**table 2.1**) and 1 µl template DNA (**section 2.2.1**). The reaction was made up to a final volume of 10 µl using dH₂O. The template was amplified using a 30X touchdown PCR programme in **table 2.2**.

Table 2.1 Genomic DNA PCR Primers

<i>ATM</i>	<i>Forward</i>	TCAACCAATTACGTTACACTTT
	<i>Reverse</i>	TTCTTCCAGGGCCCTTACTG

Table 2.2 30X Touchdown PCR

<i>Step</i>	<i>Temperature °C</i>	<i>Time (min:sec)</i>	<i>Cycles</i>
Initial denaturation	94	3:00	
Touchdown			
<i>Denaturation</i>	94	0:45	15X
<i>Annealing</i>	65-50 (-1° C/cycle)	0:45	
<i>Elongation</i>	72° C	1:30	
PCR			
<i>Denaturation</i>	94° C	0:30	30X
<i>Annealing</i>	58° C	0:45	
<i>Elongation</i>	72° C	1:00	
<i>Final Elongation:</i>	72° C	10:00	
Hold	10° C	<i>Infinite</i>	

2.2.3 Restriction Digest of PCR Products

Digestion mix was added directly to the 10 µl PCR products (**section 2.2.2**), with a final concentration of 1X CutSmart® (NewEngland Biolabs®) (NEB), 0.4 µl PpuM1 (NEB) to a final volume of 20 µl. Samples were incubated at 37° C for 12 hrs.

2.2.4 Agarose Gel Electrophoresis

Digested PCR products were separated by agarose gel electrophoreses on a 2% gel by loading the entire 20 µl reaction. A voltage of 120 V was applied to the gel for 30 mins and the gel was imaged on a SYNGENE G:Box.

2.2.5 Preparation of PCR Products for Sequencing

PCR products (**section 2.2.2**) of zebrafish from an ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross were prepared for sequencing by removal of excess dNTPs and primers by addition of 0.05 µl Exonuclease I (NEB), 1 µl Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase (Affymetrix), to 5 µl of PCR product and made up to 10 µl with dH₂O. Samples were then incubated at 37° C for 45 mins, and then incubated at 80° C for a further 15 mins. Samples were sequenced by the Genomic Core Facility at the University of Sheffield.

2.3 Measuring Gene Expression by Quantitative Reverse Transcription PCR (RT-qPCR)

2.3.1 RNA Extraction

Pooled zebrafish larvae were homogenised in 200 µl TRIzol® Reagent (Ambion® Life Technologies) with a handheld homogeniser (Pellet Pestles Cordless Motor-Sigma Aldrich). Dissected brain or muscle samples were homogenised in 1 ml TRIzol® Reagent with a handheld homogeniser. Whole adult zebrafish were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, ground under liquid nitrogen with a pestle and mortar to a powder, and homogenised in 1 ml of TRIzol® Reagent. Homogenised samples were incubated for 5 mins at room temperature, after which 0.2 mls of chloroform per 1 ml of TRIzol® Reagent was added. Samples were vigorously agitated by shaking for 15 sec and allowed to stand at room temperature for 3 mins. Samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 mins at 4 °C to separate into 3 phases. The upper (aqueous) phase containing the RNA was removed to an RNase free Eppendorf tube®.

RNA was precipitated by addition of 0.5 ml isopropyl alcohol per 1 ml of TRIzol® Reagent and incubated for 10 mins at room temperature. The sample was again centrifuged at 12,000 g for 10 mins at 4° C to collect the precipitate, and the supernatant removed from the collected pellet. The RNA pellet was washed once by resuspension in 1 ml of 75% ethanol per 1 ml of TRIzol® Reagent. To again collect the pellet, the sample was centrifuged at 7,500 g at 4° C for 5 mins and supernatant removed.

The pellet was air dried for 30 mins. Extract from larvae, and brain and muscle were dissolved in 10 µl of RNase free water, while extracts from whole adult fish were dissolved in 100 µl. Concentration and purity of extracted RNA were determined by spectrophotometry (NanoDrop® - 1000) and the samples stored at -80° C.

2.3.2 Reverse Transcription and Complementary DNA (cDNA) Synthesis

To remove contaminating genomic DNA, RNA samples (1 µg) were incubated with 1 µl DNase I (NEB), 1X DNase I reaction buffer (NEB) and made up to a final volume of 10 µl with RNase free water, at 37° C for 10 mins. Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) was added to a final concentration of 2.5 mM and the reaction heat inactivated by incubation at 75° C for 10 mins. Samples were then placed on ice.

cDNA synthesis was carried out using Quanta Bioscience qScript™ cDNA Synthesis Kit. Reactions were prepared on ice and each reaction contained 4 µl qScript™ reverse transcriptase mix and 11 µl of cleaned RNA sample mix, to a final volume 20 µl using RNase free water. Reactions were carried out in a thermal cycler under the following conditions: 22° C for 5 mins, 42° C for 30 mins, and 85° C for 5 mins.

2.3.3 RT-qPCR

2.3.3.1 Primer Optimisation

Before performing RT-qPCR on samples, primer concentrations were optimised to eliminate the formation of primer dimers. Both forward and reverse primers (100 µM) were diluted together to 1:10, 1:20, 1:40 and 1:80 in RNAase free water. An RT-qPCR reaction was carried out for each dilution with 1X EvaGreen® qPCR Master Mix (Biotium), 1 µl WT cDNA (diluted 1/5), 1 µl diluted primer pair mix to a final volume of 10 µl, using Bio Rad C100 Touch™ Real Time Thermal Cycler (Bio Rad). Reactions were analysed for amplification curve and Ct values under 35, and the presence of only one melt peak using MxPro v4.10 software.

2.3.3.2 Template Optimisation

Subsequent to primer optimisation, reaction/amplification efficiency (the amount of product increase after each cycle (%)) was determined by serial dilution (5 fold) of the template in triplicate to create a standard curve using WT cDNA in a RT-qPCR reaction outlined in section **2.4.3.1**. Reaction efficiency was calculated by:

$$10^{((-1/\text{slope of standard curve}) - 1)} * 100$$

An appropriate reaction efficiency was considered 90-110%.

2.3.3.3 RT-qPCR

1 μ l of a 1/5 dilution of each cDNA sample was amplified in triplicate using primers (**outlined in table 2.3**) at their optimised primer concentrations. Levels of mRNA were quantified relative to the reference genes *EF1 α* or *β actin* and were amplified by cycling conditions laid out in **table 2.4** and **2.5**.

Table 2.3 qPCR Primers

Primer Name	Sequences	Dilution	Protocol
ATM	Forward CGGTCCATTCAGATTGTCTCG	1/40	1
	Reverse TTCTGAAGACACCCTCCACCC	(2.5 μ M)	
ATR	Forward TGGAGTAAACCTGTGAAGGGT	1/20	1
	Reverse CAGAGGCAAGCCCATCACTT	(5 μ M)	
IgM	Forward GAAGCCTCCAATTCTGTTGG	1/20	1
	Reverse CCGGGCTAAACACATGAAG	(5 μ M)	
IgD	Forward GACACATTAGCCCATCAGCA	1/20	2
	Reverse CTGGAGAGCAGCAAAAGGAT	(5 μ M)	
IgZ/T	Forward GAACCAAACCTCAGGGTTGGA	1/20	2
	Reverse CACCCAGCATTCTACAGCAA	(5 μ M)	

Eef1a	Forward	GGATTGCCACACGGCTCACATT	1/20 (5 μ M)	n/a
	Reverse	GGTGGATAGTCTGAGAAGCTCTC		
β actin	Forward	CTCTTCACGCCTTCCTTCCT	1/10 (10 μ M)	n/a
	Reverse	CACCGATCCAGACGGACTAT	1/20 (5 μ M)	

Table 2.4 RT-qPCR Protocol 1

Step	Temperature °C	Time (min:sec)	Cycles
Initial denaturation	95	10:00	
PCR cycles			
Denaturation	95	0:30	39X
Annealing/Elongation	65	1:00	
Plate Read			
Denaturation	95	1:00	60X
Annealing	65	0:30	
Melt curve	65	00:05 (+0.5 °C/cycle)	

Table 2.5 RT-qPCR Protocol 2

Step	Temperature °C	Time (min:sec)	Cycles
Initial denaturation	95	10:00	
PCR cycles			
Denaturation	95	0:30	39X
Annealing	56	0:30	
Elongation	72	1:00	
Plate Read			
Denaturation	95	1:00	60X
Annealing	65	0:30	
Melt curve	65	00:05 (+0.5 °C/cycle)	

2.4 Behavioural Analysis

2.4.1 Measuring Swimming Defects in Zebrafish Larvae

Analysis was carried out at 5 and 12 dpf on a ZebraLab tracking system (ZebraBox, ViewPoint, Behaviour Technology). Zebrafish to be analysed at 5 dpf were arrayed in a 96 well plate (CytoOne®), one larva per well at 4.3 dpf, and

allowed to acclimatise overnight. Zebrafish to be analysed at 12 dpf were removed from the aquarium system on the morning of analysis by directly netting them from the tank in a small tea strainer and transferring them to a 10 cm plate. The zebrafish were then transfer to a 12 well plate using a pasture pipette.

For analysis, the ZebraLab tracking system was switched on and the temperature left to equilibrate for 30 mins. The zebrafish were then placed in the ViewPoint chamber for 30 mins in 100% intensity light to let fish acclimatise. Larvae were then subjected to 6 cycles of alternating dark/light (100% intensity) with each interval lasting 5 mins (30 mins total). Zebrafish movement was tracked via an infrared camera and a lower threshold for movement (inactive) set as 2 mm/sec, and an upper threshold for movement (large movements) set at 6.4 mm/sec.

For analysis of ATM^{+sh477} in-crosses, after ZebraLab tracking, larvae were genotyped as per **section 2.2** above. For analysis of zebrafish treated with CPT, embryos were placed in the 96 well plate at 8 hpf and left to develop in that environment along with the relevant CPT treatment added at the appropriate time point.

For data analysis, movement tracked between the thresholds and above the upper threshold were totalled, and all movement under the lower threshold (2 mm/sec) discarded.

2.4.2 Swimming Endurance Test on Adult Zebrafish

Critical swimming velocity (U_{crit}) is the maximum velocity that the fish can maintain for a set period. It was determined for each fish using a custom-built swim tunnel apparatus (Ramesh et al., 2010, Plaut, 2000, Brett, 1964). Zebrafish at 10 months of age were individually introduced into a plastic tunnel that would allow a variable flow rate of water to pass through. The adult zebrafish were initially subjected to a water velocity of 6.6 cm/sec for 5 mins. The flow rate of water was increased in increments of 6.6 cm/sec every 5 mins to a final velocity of 52.8 cm/sec (40 mins), or until the zebrafish became exhausted and was pushed into a mesh net at the end of the tube. When exhausted, the zebrafish was allowed 30 seconds of recovery by pausing the time and ceasing the flow of water, and was given the

chance to re-enter their highest achieved velocity by slowly increasing the flowrate. When zebrafish again became exhausted, the time was recorded. The U_{crit} was calculated by the following formula:

$$U_{crit} = U_i + (U_{ii}(T_i))/T_{ii}$$

U_i = the highest velocity maintained for a whole interval (cm/sec)

U_{ii} = the velocity increment (6.6 cm/sec)

T_i = the time elapsed at fatigue velocity (mins)

T_{ii} = the time interval (5 mins)

2.4.3 Total Motility

In a sound and lightproof box, zebrafish were placed in 0.8 L tanks in aquarium water, with a cold source back light, and allowed to acclimatise for 1 hr. Zebrafish swimming was then tracked from a side view with an infrared camera in conjunction with the ZebraLab: zebrafish behaviour screening software (ViewPoint, Behaviour Technology). A lower threshold for movement (inactive) was set as 25 mm/sec and an upper threshold for movement (large movements) was set at 50 mm/sec. For data analysis, movements tracked between the thresholds and above the upper threshold were totalled, and all movement under the lower threshold (25 mm/sec) discarded.

2.5 Measuring Protein Expression

2.5.1 Western Blot

2.5.1.1 Protein Extraction

Whole zebrafish were sacrificed and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. For protein extraction, each zebrafish was crushed to a powder with liquid nitrogen with a pestle and mortar. To roughly a third of the crushed fish, 300 μ l of ice-cold buffer was added. Buffers used for protein extraction were: Radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer (-) 'no salt' (25 mM Tris pH 7-8, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-100); General Lysis buffer (Tris 50 mM, pH8, NaCl 40 mM, MgCl₂ 2 mM, 0.5% Triton, Benzomase 1:1000), Reporter Lysis buffer (Promega), with 1:1000 Benzobnase. To each buffer, 1X proteases inhibitor

cocktail (ThermoFisherScientific) was added. Crushed zebrafish were homogenised using a handheld homogeniser and a further 300 µl of the relevant buffer was added. Note: the RIPA buffer that was added at this point was RIPA (+) 'salt' (25 mM Tris pH 7-8, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl). To this 1X protease inhibitor cocktail was again added. The crushed zebrafish were then sonicated at 40% amplitude, for 5 sec X5, placing on ice between each sonication. Zebrafish were then left to lyse on ice for 30 mins. Samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 20 mins at 4° C to remove insoluble debris. The supernatant, containing soluble proteins, was removed to a clean Eppendorf tube, and a Bradford Assay (BioRad) to determine concentration was performed using bovine serum albumin (BSA) to calculate a standard curve.

2.5.1.2 Immunoprecipitation

To 1.5 mg of lysates, the relevant antibody was added at a ratio of 2 µg/500 µg of lysates, and incubated overnight at 4° C. Then, 50 µl of 50% Protein G beads (Mag Sepharose™Xtra, GE Healthcare, Sweden) were added and incubated at 4° C for 2 hrs. The mixture was then spun at 17,000 g for 1 min and the supernatant removed. The beads were washed 3 times in RIPA buffer and washed in TBS once. To the beads, 50 µl of laemmli buffer was added and the samples boiled on a heat block at 100° C for 10 mins.

2.5.1.3 SDS PAGE

Extracted protein was separated by 7.5% SDS-PAGE, (7.5% acrylamide, 0.375 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.8, 0.1% SDS, 0.1% APS, 0.1% TEMED and made up to a total volume of 25 mls with H₂O) and 4% stacking gel (4% acrylamide, 125 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 0.1% SDS, 0.06% APS, 0.3% TEMED and made up to a total volume of 4 mls with H₂O), or with a 4-20% gradient gel (Mini-PROTEAN TGX, #4561096, BioRad). Running buffer was diluted to 1X from a 10X stock (249 mM Tris, 1.918 M Glycine) and 0.1% SDS added.

2.5.1.4 Electroblothing

Polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (0.45 µm Immobilon®P, Millipore) was soaked in methanol for 30 secs to activate it. Proteins were transferred from the gel to a PVDF or nitrocellulose (Amersham™ Protran™ 0.45 µm, 10600002, GE Healthcare) membrane by wet electroblotting (Mini Trans-Blot® Cell) in transfer buffer, which was made by diluting 10X running buffer (**section 2.5.3**) and adding 20% methanol.

2.5.1.5 Immunodetection of proteins

After transfer of proteins, membranes were blocked in 5% solution of powdered skimmed milk (Marvel) in TBST (0.1% Tween-20 in Tris buffered saline (TBS) solution for 1 hr. Primary antibodies to proteins of interest were diluted in the 5% powdered skimmed milk TBST solution. Primary antibodies used, and the concentrations with which they were used, can be found in the text. Membranes were incubated with agitation overnight at 4° C. Membranes were washed three times at room temperature in TBST with agitation, for 10 minutes each wash. Membranes were then incubated with the appropriate horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibody (Polyclonal Goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin HRP, Dako) diluted to 1:5000 in TBST for 1 hr at room temperature with agitation. Membranes were again washed as above.

2.5.1.6 Visualisation of Protein Bands

Membranes were incubated with SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (Thermo Scientific) for 5 mins with agitation, and the chemiluminescent bands detected using autoradiography film (Amersham Hyperfilm™ ECL, GE Healthcare).

2.5.2 Whole Mount Immunofluorescence

2.5.2.1 Immunostaining

Zebrafish embryos were anaesthetised in batches 30 by treatment with 120 µl Tricaine solution (42 ml per 100 ml of E3). Once fish were anaesthetised, the

Tricaine was removed, and the larvae incubated in 4% PFA, at 4° C, with agitation overnight. Zebrafish were washed in PBS once, and washed in PBT (PBS, 1% Triton-X) for 5 min X3. To permeabilise the embryos, they were incubated for 25 mins, with 0.25% Trypsin/PBT at room temperature. To stop the reaction, 1% goat serum/PBT was added at an equal volume to the permeabilisation reaction. Embryos were again washed with PBT and blocked for 3 hrs, rocking at room temperature in blocking buffer (10 % goat serum, 1% BSA, 1% DMSO, in PBT). Primary antibody, rabbit anti γ H₂AX, Cat No. GTX127342 (GeneTex), was added to the embryos in antibody dilution buffer (5% goat serum, 1% BSA, 1% DMSO, in PBT) at a concentration of 1:1000, and incubated rocking at 4° C, overnight. The following day, embryos were washed in PBT for 5 hrs with 5 changes of PBT. Secondary antibody, goat anti-rabbit, Alexa Flour™568 (Life Technologies), was added at a concentration of 1:1000, along with Hoechst (1:10,000) overnight, rocking at 4° C. Embryos were then washed at room temperature for 5 hrs, with 5 changes of PBT.

2.5.2.2 Preparation of embryos for imaging

In an Eppendorf, embryos were placed in 25% glycerol until they sank to the bottom. Stepwise, the embryos were then placed in 50% glycerol and 75% glycerol, and the same allowed to happen. Under a dissecting microscope, the embryos heads and tails were separated, with the tails being used for genotyping and the heads mounted in 75% glycerol for imaging.

2.5.2.3 Confocal Imaging

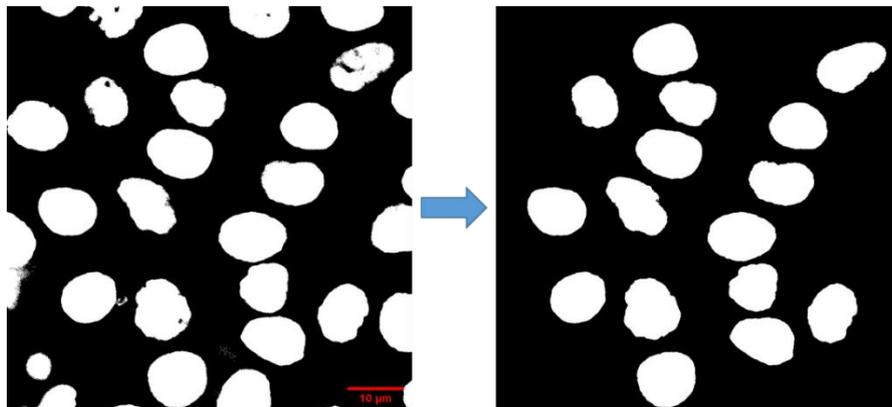
Whole mount immunostained larvae were imaged on an SP5 confocal microscope system (Leica). Image analysis was performed using ImageJ (NIH).

2.5.2.4 Quantification of γ H₂AX foci

Automated quantification of γ H₂AX foci was performed with a custom MATLAB script. Briefly, maximum projections of Hoechst-marked nuclei and γ H₂AX foci were binarized by applying an adaptive threshold, and de-noised using a median filter. A threshold based on size and shape (roundness) was applied to the binary

nuclei to exclude incomplete or overlapping nuclei (**figure 2.2 a**). A mask of the selected nuclei was then applied to the binary γ H2AX signal to select for only those γ H2AX foci that are present in the nuclei of interest (**figure 2.2 b**). The area of the γ H2AX foci in each nucleus was then determined and normalised to the area of the relevant nucleus. Data was expressed as Relative Area γ H2AX foci/cell and used as a measure of γ H2AX foci number/cell. Quantification of γ H2AX foci was carried out by Dr Victor Alfred, Grierson Lab, SITraN.

a.



b.

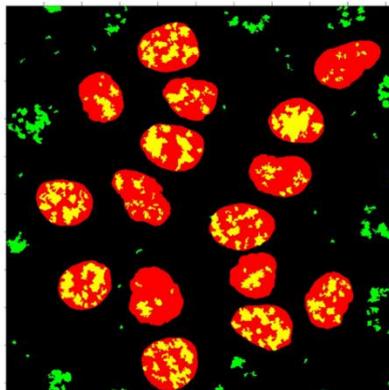


Figure 2.2 Quantification of γ H2AX foci by a custom script. **a.** Nuclei to be analysed were selected based on shape and size to prevent to analysis of overlapping cells. **b.** A binary mask of the selected nuclei was then applied to γ H2AX foci, and the area of the foci within the selected nuclei was measured.

2.6 Histology

2.6.1 Preparation and Sectioning of Formalin Fixed Paraffin Embedded (FFPE) Adult Zebrafish

Adult zebrafish were sacrificed and immersed in 4% PFA. Zebrafish were incubated in the PFA, rocking, at 4° C for 4 days. Zebrafish were briefly washed in PBS and then incubated in 8.5 mM EDTA, pH8, for 7 days, with the EDTA being changed on day 4. Zebrafish were then processed in a tissue processor (Leica TP1020), with the following protocol: 70% ethanol (2 hrs) X3, 95% (2 hrs) X2, 100% ethanol (2 hrs) X2, Xylene (Fisher Scientific, UK) (2 hrs) X2, paraffin with vacuum (2 hrs) X2.

The zebrafish tissue was then microtome sectioned at a thickness of 5 µm and mounted on charged slides (StarFrost, Knittel Glass). Slides were dried overnight in an oven at 37° C.

2.6.2 Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) Staining of Slides

To remove the paraffin, slides were placed in xylene, for 5 mins, X2. Slides were then hydrated by placing them sequentially in 100% X2, 95% and 70% ethanol (Fisher Scientific, UK), for 5 mins each. Slides were then quickly washed in tap water and stained in filtered Harris's haematoxylin (Leica, UK), for 2 mins. Slides were quickly washed again in tap water, and then the haematoxylin differentiated by dipping the slides into acid alcohol 3 times, before being washed in tap water again. Slides were then incubated in Scott's tap water until the haematoxylin turned from purple to blue. Slides were incubated in eosin (Leica, UK) for 5 mins, and then washed in tap water. Slides were dehydrated by sequentially washing them in 70%, 95% and 100% X2 ethanol for 1 min each, and finally placing in xylene for 5 mins. Slides were cover slipped (Fisher Scientific, UK) in DPX mounting media (Leica, UK). To set the DPX, slides were dried in an oven overnight at 37° C.

2.6.3 Immunohistochemistry

FFPE slides were deparaffinised and hydrated as outlined above in **section 2.8.2**. After incubation in ethanol, slides underwent peroxidase quenching by incubation in methanol and 3% H₂O₂ for 20 mins. Slides were washed in tap water, and antigen retrieval performed at either pH 6 (Access Revelation, Menapath, Wokingham, United Kingdom) or pH9 (Super RTU antigen retrieval solution, Menarini Diagnostics) by placing the slides in the relevant antigen solution in a pressure cooker, with 500 ml water. The pressure cooker program was set to 300 psi at 125° C for 30 sec. Slides were then immunostained with Vectastain Elite ABC-HRP kits, specific to the species in which the primary antibody was raised, as per their protocol. Slides were incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4° C. For antibody optimisations, a rabbit IgG (Vector Laboratories, UK) was used as a control, at the highest concentration that the primary antibody was used at, to ensure primary antibody specificity. Antibody staining was visualised by 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) kit (Vector Laboratories) for ~ 6 mins, and the reaction stopped by washing in water. Slides were counterstained with haematoxylin for 1 min, and again washed in tap water. The haematoxylin was differentiated by dipping the slides into acid alcohol X3, before quickly washing in tap water again. Slides were then incubated in Scotts tap water until the haematoxylin turned from purple to blue, and washed again in tap water. Slides were prepared for cover slipping by dehydration in progressively concentrated ethanol, and incubated in xylene as described above in **section 2.8.2**. Slides were then cover slipped as previously described.

2.6.4 Imaging of FFPE Sections

Slides were imaged on NanoZoomer S60 Digital Slide Scanner U12388-01, C13210-01 (Hamamatsu) and analysed using NDP.view2 Viewing software (Hamamatsu).

2.7 Statistical Analysis

Data were analysed using GraphPad Prism software ® and power calculations were carried out using G*Power software.

Chapter 3

Characterisation of the ATM Mutation in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish, their Response to Ionising Radiation and Activation of the DDR

3.1 Introduction

As outlined above in **chapter 1, section 1.3**, several animal models of AT already exist. However, most of these, with the exception of the porcine model, fail to faithfully recapitulate the neurodegenerative phenotype seen in AT. Zebrafish are genetically tractable, and generation of an ATM knockout model is relatively quick and inexpensive. Furthermore, zebrafish embryos are conducive to high throughput screening in a way that higher vertebrate models are not. A zebrafish ATM morpholino (MO) KD model has been reported (Imamura and Kishi, 2005). However, investigation into the effects of ablation of ATM have only been made at the embryonic level as MO KD is transient, and since AT is a degenerative disorder it will likely be necessary to look beyond embryonic development to understand the full effects of loss of ATM. Furthermore, MO KD is sometimes associated with off-target effects, such as p53 activation, which is regulated by ATM (Robu et al., 2007, Cheng and Chen, 2010), thus observations made in that model may not be truly representative of loss of ATM. Therefore, we propose use of a KO model carrying a similar type of ATM mutation to that found in classical AT patients.

In order to determine if a zebrafish ATM KO is an appropriate model of AT, characterisation of the effects of loss of ATM in zebrafish must be carried out. In this chapter, we have characterised zebrafish carrying a truncating mutation in ATM and investigated whether this model recapitulates any of the phenotypes observed in AT patients, such as radiosensitivity, deficiencies in the DDR, and immunodeficiency.

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Expression of *ATM* in *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* Zebrafish

3.2.1.1 Expression of *ATM* mRNA in *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* Zebrafish

A potential zebrafish *ATM* KO model of AT (*ATM^{sh477/sh477}*) had previously been made using CRISPR/Cas9 (Zakšauskaitė, Van Eeden and El Khamisy, Unpublished). These fish were uncharacterised, and the characterisation studies described in this thesis were performed in collaboration with Prof. El Khamisy.

To confirm the mutation in these zebrafish, the CRISPR targeted region of exon 6 was amplified by PCR, and the products sequenced by the University of Sheffield Genomics Core Facility. Chromatograms of the sequences were analysed and *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish were found to have a 5 bp deletion mutation when compared to their wild type siblings (**figure 3.1 a**). The predicted amino acid sequence results in a frameshift mutation, leading to generation of 18 novel amino acids followed by a premature stop codon (**figure 3.1 b**).

We predicted that this premature stop codon would either lead to a truncated protein product and loss of the *ATM* pathway, or loss of the *ATM* protein via induction of nonsense mediated degradation (NMD) of the mutant mRNA due to the upstream premature stop codon (Hug et al., 2016). To determine if the *ATM^{sh477}* transcript induced NMD, we used reverse transcriptase – quantitative PCR (RT- qPCR) to determine the *ATM* mRNA levels in the mutant zebrafish. We developed a number of primers upstream and downstream of the mutation site, which are outlined in **figure 3.2 a**, and used these to determine *ATM* mRNA expression at a number of different ages. Unless otherwise stated, *ATM* mRNA expression was measured using primers designed against exons 58-59 (**figure 3.2 a**). This area was selected as it is 3' of the predicted stop codon in exon 6 and is also within the kinase domain, which is known to be critical for *ATM* protein function (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.2**).

ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish are produced from an *ATM^{+ /sh477}* in-cross. Therefore, it is important to determine if there is any maternal contribution of *ATM* mRNA and when it ends. Second, it is useful to know when high levels of *ATM* are expressed, as this may indicate its importance in development of the fish at that time. Thus, *ATM* mRNA expression was measured in wild type zebrafish

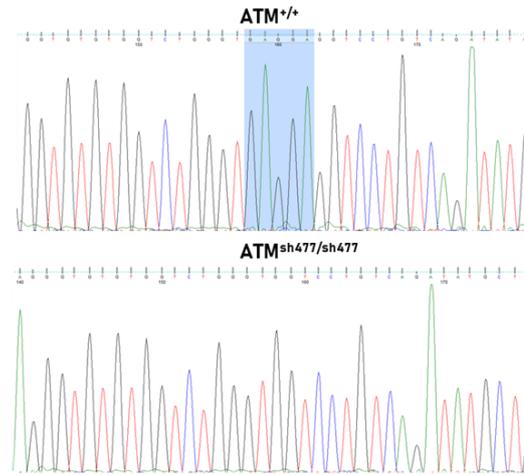
through the first 28 days of development using RNA extracted from pooled wild type embryos (**figure 3.2 b and c**). Expression was normalised to *EAF1 α* . It appears that there is a strong maternal contribution of *ATM* mRNA as there are significantly higher levels detected ~1.5 hours post fertilisation (hpf), at the 16 cell stage (**figure 3.2 b**). *ATM* mRNA levels are sharply decreased by ~ 5.25 hpf, at 50% epiboly. While the level of *ATM* mRNA varied over the next 7 days, changes in expression did not reach statistical significance. *ATM* mRNA expression was transiently increased at 14 dpf ($p < 0.01$), but decreased again at 21 and 28 dpf (**figure 3.2 c**).

NMD decay is a mechanism by which aberrant mRNA transcripts are degraded to protect the cell. This results in a decrease in, or almost complete ablation of the mutant mRNA expression to prevent the mutant protein from being translated (Lindeboom et al., 2016). To determine if the deletion mutation is associated with NMD of *ATM* mRNA, 5 pooled larvae from each genotype were analysed at 5 dpf, and no significant difference was observed in expression between *ATM*^{+/+} and *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish (**figure 3.2 d**). *ATM* expression was further investigated at 21 dpf (3 weeks), as at this point in development maternally contributed mRNA will no longer be detectable. All 3 possible genotypes resulting from an *ATM*^{+/sh477} in-cross exhibited remarkably similar *ATM* mRNA expression (**figure 3.2 e**), suggesting that the *ATM* mRNA is not susceptible to NMD.

All expression data gathered thus far used primers amplifying a 3' region of the transcript encoding the kinase coding domain, which is critical for *ATM* function. However, we hypothesised that alternative *ATM* transcripts with ATG codons 3' of the frame shift mutation may be present. Therefore, RT-qPCR was also carried out at 3 weeks using primers upstream of the mutation site amplifying exons 1-2 and 4-5. No significant differences in mRNA levels were observed with either of the new primer pairs (**figure 3.2 f & g**).

As a final step, we investigated *ATM* mRNA levels in whole zebrafish extracts and mRNA prepared from adult brains. While there was variation in expression between fish, and there was a trend of decreased expression in *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} compared to *ATM*^{+/+} siblings, it was not statistically significant (**figure 3.2 h and i**).

a.



```

Ensembl      5' GCTTCTCTCCTGCAGGAAGAGGGTGTGTGGTCTGGGTGAGGAGGCCTGTCAGATATGCT 3'
Wild Type   GCTTCTCTCCTGCAGGAAGAGGGTGTGTGGTCTGGGTGAGGAGGCCTGTCAGATATGCT
ATMsh477/sh477 GCTTCTCTCCTGCAGGAAGAGGGTGTGTGGTCTGGGT-----GGTCTGTCAGATATGCT
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b.

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Ensembl      AEKQLMVLENLVS AVNVFLRSVLLSCRKRVCGLGEEVLS DMLCVYTGMRPSSVLKEELVKFFQIQLFVHHPKGAKTIET
Wild Type   AEKQLMVLENLVS AVNVFLRSVLLSCRKRVCGLGEEVLS DMLCVYTGMRPSSVLKEELVKFFQIQLFVHHPKGAKTIET
ATMsh477/sh477 AEKQLMVLENLVS AVNVFLRSVLLSCRKRVCGLG G PVRVAVRLYWDETQLST*
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```

Figure 3.1 Characterisation of the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutation. **a.** Chromatogram of partial sequences from wild type and mutant PCR products of exon 6 of *ATM* (deleted bases in blue), along with a partial alignment of the sequence compared with Ensembl (Ensembl, 2017) sequence showing a 5 bp deletion in the mutant zebrafish. **b.** Translated protein sequence of exon 6 showing that the 5 bp deletion in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish leads to a downstream premature stop codon.

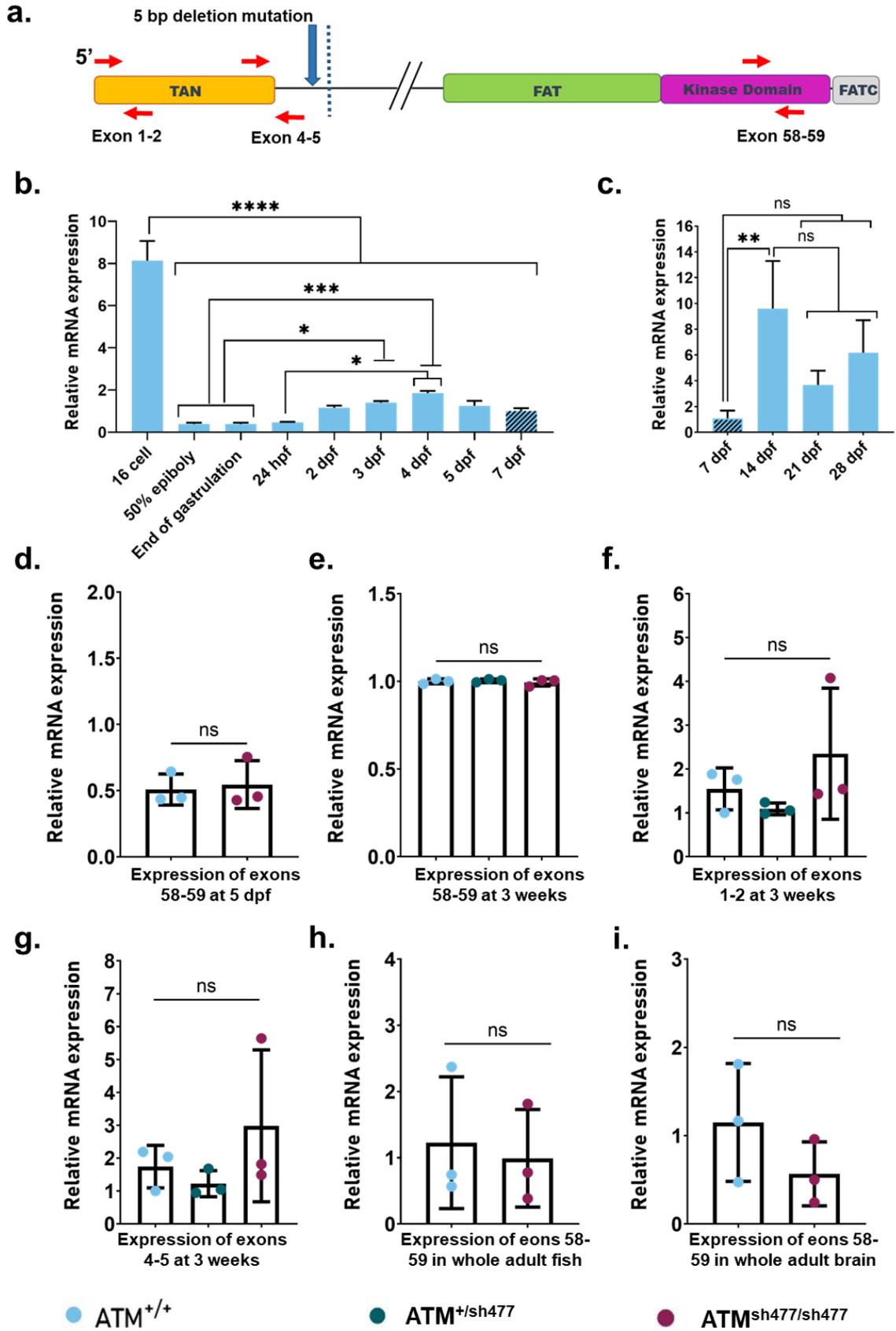


Figure 3.2 Expression of ATM mRNA in wild type and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. **a.** Schematic of zebrafish ATM mRNA indicating the encoded protein functional regions and positions of primers used for RT-qPCR analysis (red arrows). Blue arrow indicates position of the deletion mutation and dotted line indicates the resulting downstream stop codon. **b.** Expression of ATM mRNA through first 7 days of development. Expression was normalised to *EF1 α* levels as a control and then expressed relative to the expression level at 7 dpf. Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Each stage assessed represents mRNA expression in a number of pooled embryos (16 cell - end of gastrulation = 100 embryos, 1 and 2 dpf = 50 embryos, 3 – 7 dpf = 25 larvae) with N=3 replicates. **c.** Expression of ATM mRNA from 7-28 dpf, normalised to *EF1 α* expression and expressed relative to 7 dpf expression. Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test, 7 dpf vs 21 dpf ($p = 0.5522$), 7 dpf vs 28 dpf ($p = 0.1042$). Each data point represents 10 pooled fish with N=3 replicates. **d.** Expression of $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ at 5dpf. Each data point represents 5 pooled embryos, N=3 replicates. Expression was normalised to *EF1 α* levels as a control. Data were analysed by an unpaired t-test ($p = 0.7797$). **e.** Expression of $ATM^{+/+}$, $ATM^{+/sh477}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ at 3 weeks old. Data points represent individual fish. Expression was normalised to *EF1 α* levels as a control. Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. **f.** Expression of exons 1-2 of ATM mRNA at 3 weeks. Expression was normalised to *EF1 α* levels as a control. Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. **g.** Expression of exons 4-5 of ATM mRNA at 3 weeks. Data were analysed by one-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. **h.** Exons 58-59 of ATM mRNA global expression in adult zebrafish. Each data point represents an individual fish. Expression was normalised to *EF1 α* levels as a control. Note: Individual fish analysed in **e** are the same fish analysed in **f** and **h**. Data were analysed by an unpaired t-test ($p = 0.7576$). **i.** Exons 58-59 of ATM mRNA expression in the brain of adult zebrafish. Each data point represents an individual fish. Data were analysed by an unpaired t-test ($p = 0.2549$). In all graphs, error bars represent the mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.1**.

3.2.1.2 Investigation into the Expression of the ATM Protein in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish

As no difference in the expression level of *ATM* mRNA was observed, we decided to raise an antibody to detect zebrafish ATM protein. The extreme N-terminal of the protein was chosen as the immunogenic sequence (amino acids 1-120) (**figure 3.3**), as it was hoped that if ATM^{sh477} mRNA does not undergo NMD and is translated, both the full length and truncated protein might be detected by western blot.

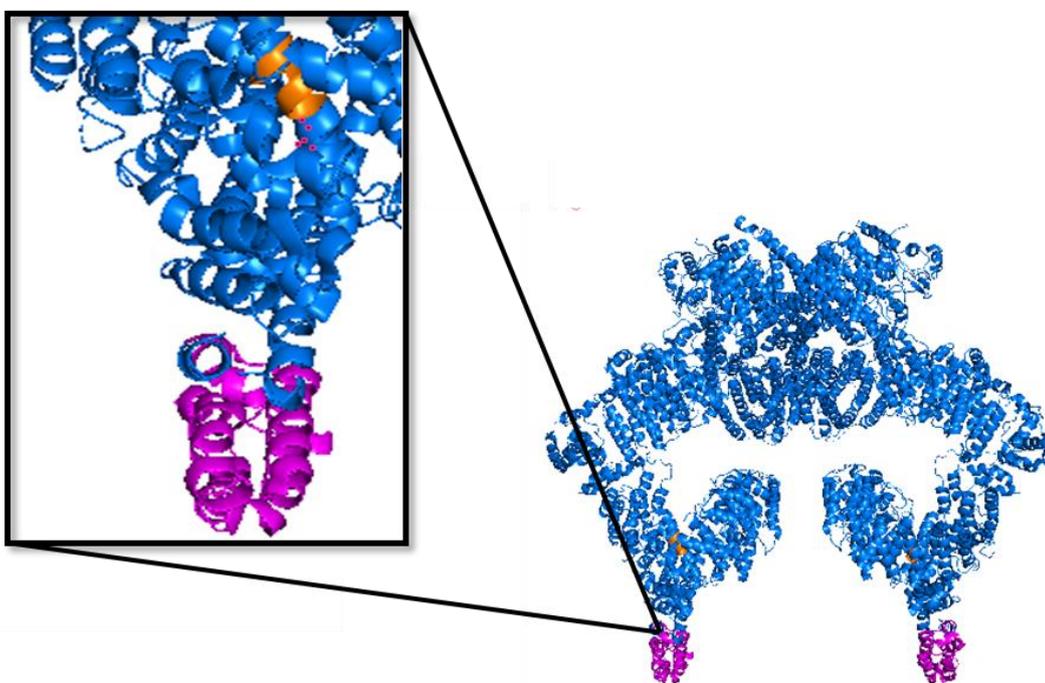


Figure 3.3 Epitope to which the zebrafish ATM antibodies were raised, modelled on the human ATM structure. Pink indicates the recombinant peptide of the N-terminal that was used to raise the antibody (amino acids 1-120). For reference, orange indicates the location of the residues surrounding the premature stop codon in the mutant protein.

Zebrafish specific ATM antibodies were generated by Proteintech™ by inoculation of two rabbits with a GST tagged recombinant peptide corresponding to amino acids 1-120 of the zebrafish ATM protein. The method and production data sheet of the antibodies carried out by Proteintech™ can be observed in **appendix 3.2**. As two rabbits were inoculated, two polyclonal antibodies were received (zATM1 and zATM2) and these were first optimised for detection of full-

length endogenous ATM by western blot, and optimised in order to find an appropriate lysis buffer and antibody concentration. Whole adult sexed match fish (12 months/male), were first crushed under liquid nitrogen using a mortar and pestle, and then the powdered tissue was split into 3 aliquots, and lysed in 3 different buffers. The lysis buffers used were Radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer, a General Lysis (lysis) buffer, and a commercial buffer, Reporter Lysis (Reporter) buffer. As full-length zebrafish ATM is predicted to have a molecular weight of ~350 KDa, lysates were run on 7.5% polyacrylamide gels to allow adequate separation of high molecular weight proteins, and transferred to PVDF membranes. The membranes were then probed with three antibody concentrations (1:100, 1:500 and 1:1000) (**figure 3.4**). On the basis of prominent bands after Ponceau staining of the PVDF membranes, samples collected from the same fish gave distinctly different protein content depending on which buffer was used (**figure 3.4**). Furthermore, ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish lysed with the same buffer also gave different Ponceau staining patterns. This is likely due to a testicular pathology that will be discussed in **chapter 4**, causing a difference in the cellular makeup of the tissue that was lysed. These differences in overall protein content make it difficult to know the effect of antibody specificity. This is evident in the reactivity of the antibody, both between the buffers used and the lysates from each genotype, as different banding patterns can be observed on the western blot. This is best observed in **figure 3.4 a iii and b ii**. Both antibodies are reactive even when diluted 1:1000, detecting bands at a number of different sizes, particularly around 50 KDa. However, neither antibody detected anything above 250 KDa that could be considered full length ATM in either ATM^{+/+} or ATM^{sh477/sh477} lysates. In the context of probing with zATM1, lysing with RIPA buffer appeared to give the highest protein content that was reactive with the antibody, whereas probing with zATM2, the general lysis buffer gave the protein content with the greatest reactivity.

In addition to optimisation of lysis buffer and antibody concentration, the type of transfer membrane used was also tested, comparing nitrocellulose and PVDF (**see appendix 3.3**). No significant differences were observed between the two membranes; therefore PVDF was used for detection of zebrafish ATM.

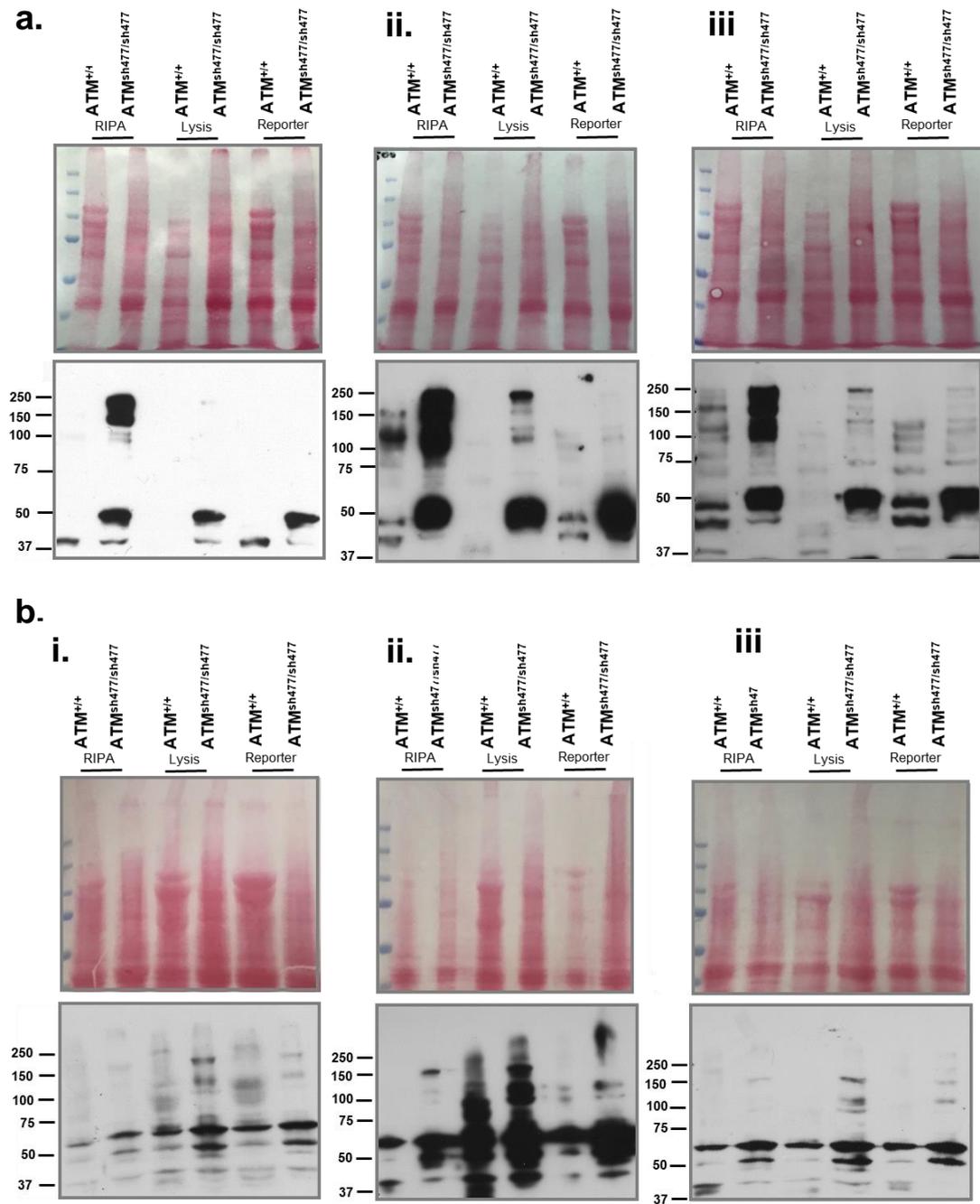


Figure 3.4 Optimisation of novel zATM antibodies for detection of full-length endogenous ATM with suitable lysis buffer and antibody concentration. Whole adult zebrafish lysates were lysed in 3 buffers, RIPA, General Lysis Buffer (Lysis) and Reporter Lysis Buffer from Promega (Reporter), and were analysed by western blot (7.5% agarose gel/PVDF membrane) and probed with both zATM raised antibodies (zATM1 and zATM2) at a range of concentrations. **a.** Zebrafish lysates probed with zATM1. **b.** Zebrafish lysates probed with zATM2. **i)** antibody diluted to 1:1000 **ii)** antibody diluted to 1:500 **iii)** antibody diluted to 1:100.

It was not known whether the antibodies were capable of detecting the zebrafish protein, or if the concentration of endogenous ATM protein was below the limit of detection. For that reason, in order to determine if the antibodies were capable of detecting the truncated form of ATM, and at what limit of detection, 30 ng of the GST tagged ATM (aa 1-120) peptide that had been used to inoculate the rabbits, was serially diluted (1/3) and probed with zATM1. The predicted size of the recombinant protein is ~39 KDa (aa 1-20 of zebrafish ATM =13.8 KDa, GST tag= ~26 KDa) (**see appendix 3.2**). The zATM1 antibody was able to detect a strong band just above 37 KDa (**figure 3.5 a**), which is likely the recombinant protein as it is similar to quality control tests carried out by Proteintech™, who also detected a band at the same molecular weight when probing with a GST antibody after protein induction in transformed bacterial lysates (**see appendix 3.2 page 4 of proteintech™ data sheet**). The zATM1 antibody was able to detect 1.1ng of recombinant protein using a longer exposure (data not shown). There is also a lower band present at 25 KDa. This may represent a cleaved version of the GST tagged peptide purified from the bacterial cells, and can also be detected by a GST antibody (**see appendix 3.2 page 4 of Proteintech™ data sheet**).

In order to determine whether there is a truncated protein produced in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, lysates from three $ATM^{+/+}$ and three $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ male zebrafish (12 months) were separated on a 4-20% gradient agarose gel to allow maximum separation and visualisation of both low and high molecular weight proteins, as the truncated protein is predicted to be 31 KDa. After transferring to PVDF membrane, lysates were probed with zATM1 (**figure 3.5 b**). Again, nothing was detected above 250 KDa in either genotype, indicating that the full-length protein was not detected. However, three bands were detected between 20-37 KDa that appeared to be much more prominent in homozygous fish compared to wild type (**figure 3.5 b green arrows**). Although not conclusive, this result is consistent with the generation of truncated ATM protein in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, and in keeping with our inability to find evidence of nonsense mediated degradation of *ATM* mRNA.

As there is evidence suggesting that the recombinant peptide and truncated ATM protein might be detected by zATM1 (**figure 3.5 a and b**) it was

hoped that the full-length protein may also be detectable, but the endogenous concentration was below the limit of detection of the antibody. Therefore, we attempted to increase its concentration by carrying out an immunoprecipitation assay (IP). The IP was optimised by lysing wild type fish in RIPA buffer as described above, and incubating 1.5 mg of whole zebrafish lysates with either zATM1, zATM2 or a control Rabbit IgG (2 µg antibody/500 µg lysate). Immunoprecipitated proteins were size separated using a 4-20% gradient PAGE, transferred to PVDF, and then incubated with the above antibodies. Both zATM antibodies detected a band well above 250 KDa (**figure 3.5 c**); however, the same band was detected in the rabbit IgG control, so it is non-specific. The sample immunoprecipitated by zATM1 and then probed by zATM1 shows a higher molecular weight band (**figure 3.5 c, yellow arrow**). It is possible that this was ATM as it was estimated to be an appropriate size. However, without a molecular marker beyond 250 KDa it was difficult to determine if this was a positive detection of ATM or an artefact of protein stuck either at bottom of the wells, or at the stacking/resolving gel. Therefore, another IP was attempted with lysates from three ATM^{+/+} and three ATM^{sh477/sh477} male zebrafish (12 months), which were both immunoprecipitated with zATM1, and the western blot probed with zATM1 (**figure 3.5 d**). This time, landmarks of the gel such as the stacking/resolving gel interface and the bottom of the wells were marked to give context to any high molecular weight bands detected (**figure 3.5 d, asterisks**). There was a band detected in all samples well above 250 KDa, although, this was at the stacking/resolving gel interface. Therefore, we were unable to detect zebrafish ATM full length protein using western blot. Optimisation for the ATM antibody was carried out for immunohistochemistry, and will be discussed in **chapter 4 section 4.2.2.4**. Detection of ATM peptides in ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} lysates, at 5 dpf by mass spectrometry was also attempted. However, ATM could not be detected in either sample (data not shown).

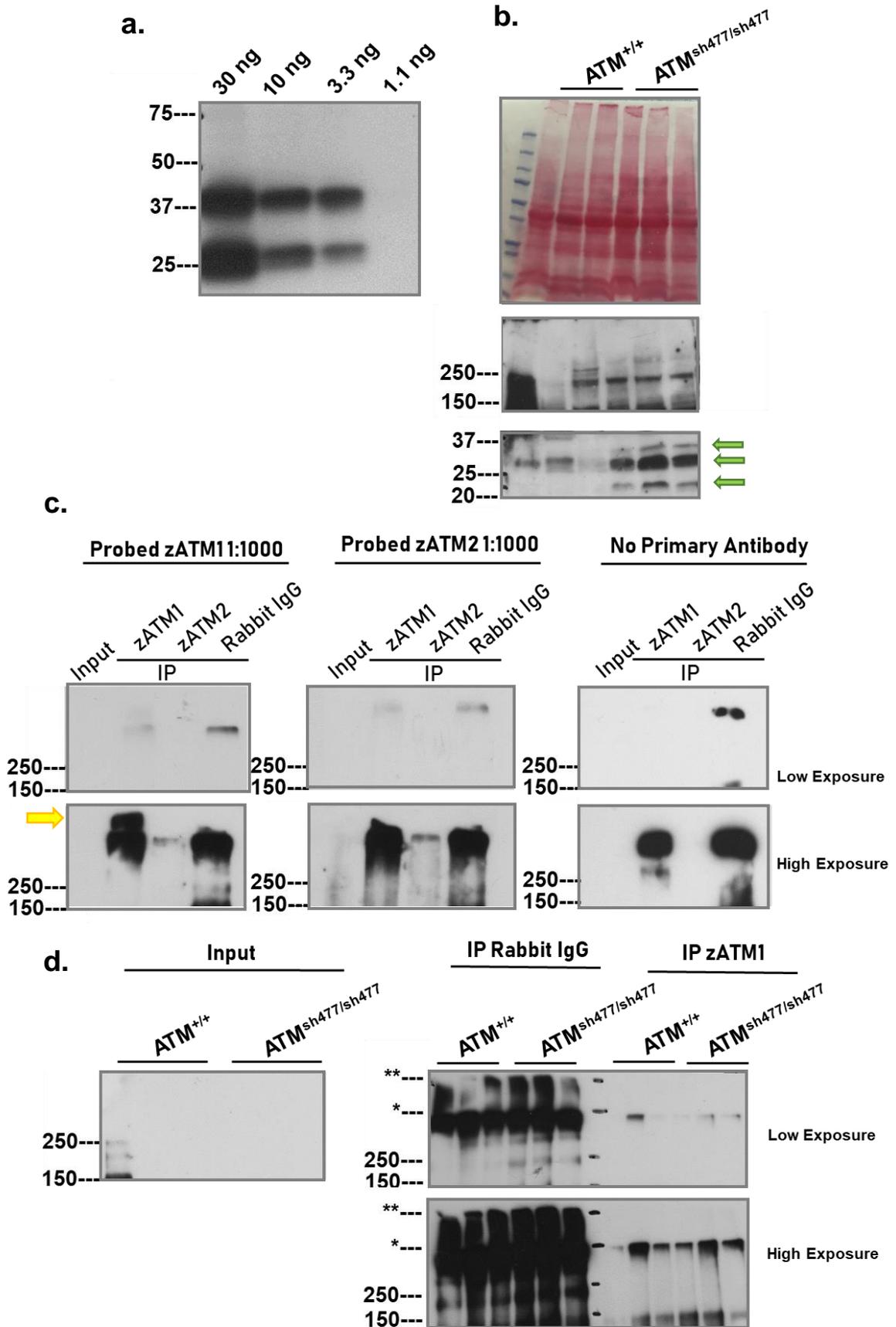


Figure 3.5 zATM antibodies do not detect endogenous full-length zebrafish ATM. **a.** Serial 1:3 dilution of recombinant zebrafish ATM peptide (amino acids 1-120) with GST tag is detected by zATM1 (1:1000). **b.** Lysates from sex matched zebrafish separated on a 4-20% gradient gel, transferred to PVDF membrane and probed with zATM1 (1:1000) show no protein detected above 250 KDa in either ATM^{+/+} or ATM^{sh477/sh477}. It does show an ATM^{sh477/sh477} specific band between 25 and 37 KDa and another at ~20 KDa (green arrows). **c.** Optimisation of immunoprecipitation of ATM. 1.5 mg of wild type zebrafish adult lysates were immunoprecipitated with either zATM1, zATM2 or control rabbit IgG (2 µg antibody/ 500 µg lysate), and along with 100 µg of input probed with either zATM1, zATM2 (1:1000) or no primary antibody. There appeared to be a zATM1 pulled/probed specific band (yellow arrow). **d.** IP of lysates (1 mg) from three sex matched ATM^{+/+} and three ATM^{sh477/sh477} adult zebrafish probed with zATM1 (1:1000), input (100 µg). * Stacking/resolving gel interface ** bottom of loading wells.

3.2.2 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Develop as Male

Domesticated zebrafish do not have sex chromosomes, and their sex determination is thought to be governed by unknown genetic components that are sensitive to environmental cues (Liew and Orbán, 2014). These unknown genetic components may be polygenic and may differ between strains of zebrafish (Liew and Orbán, 2014). During development, all zebrafish initially develop a 'juvenile ovary' which can either continue to grow into a mature ovary, or can degenerate and subsequently develop into testes through oocyte apoptosis between 19 and 27 dpf (Maack and Segner, 2003, Wang et al., 2007). However, this sexual development is also sensitive to environmental factors, particularly stress factors such as high temperature (Abozaid et al., 2011), high density (Abozaid et al., 2011), lack of resources (Lawrence et al., 2008), and low oxygen (Shang et al., 2006). Stress factors such as elevated temperature appear to consistently skew sex ratios in favour of more males (Liew and Orbán, 2014), however, low density and unknown factors can skew towards more females. Furthermore, ATM functions in HR, and mutations in *brca2*, *rad51*, and 12 other DDR genes in zebrafish have also caused female to male sex reversal (Ramanagoudr-Bhojappa et al., 2018, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2010, Shive et al., 2010, Vierstraete et al., 2017).

In our first in-cross of ATM^{+sh477} zebrafish we noticed that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish were consistently phenotypically male. Given the link between KO of DNA repair genes and female to male sex reversal in zebrafish, we investigated further. We raised three clutches of 120 fish each, from multiple ATM^{+sh477} in-cross parent pairs, to sexual maturity (3 months) using standard housing density of 9.2 zebrafish/litre (60 per tank). The progeny were genotyped and independently assigned a sex based on their phenotypic characteristics (morphology and colour) by a member of the aquarium team who did not know the genotype of each fish. Zebrafish from the ATM^{+sh477} in-cross maintained close to a Mendelian frequency of ATM genotypes (**figure 3.6 a**), and overall had a similar ratio of male to female fish within the clutch (**figure 3.6 b**). However, all ATM^{sh477/sh477} fish observed, with the exception of one fish, were phenotypically male (**figure 3.6 c**). This preference of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish for the male lineage was consistent in every clutch raised from ATM^{+sh477} in-crosses

throughout the project, including when crossed to a TDP1 null background (data not shown).

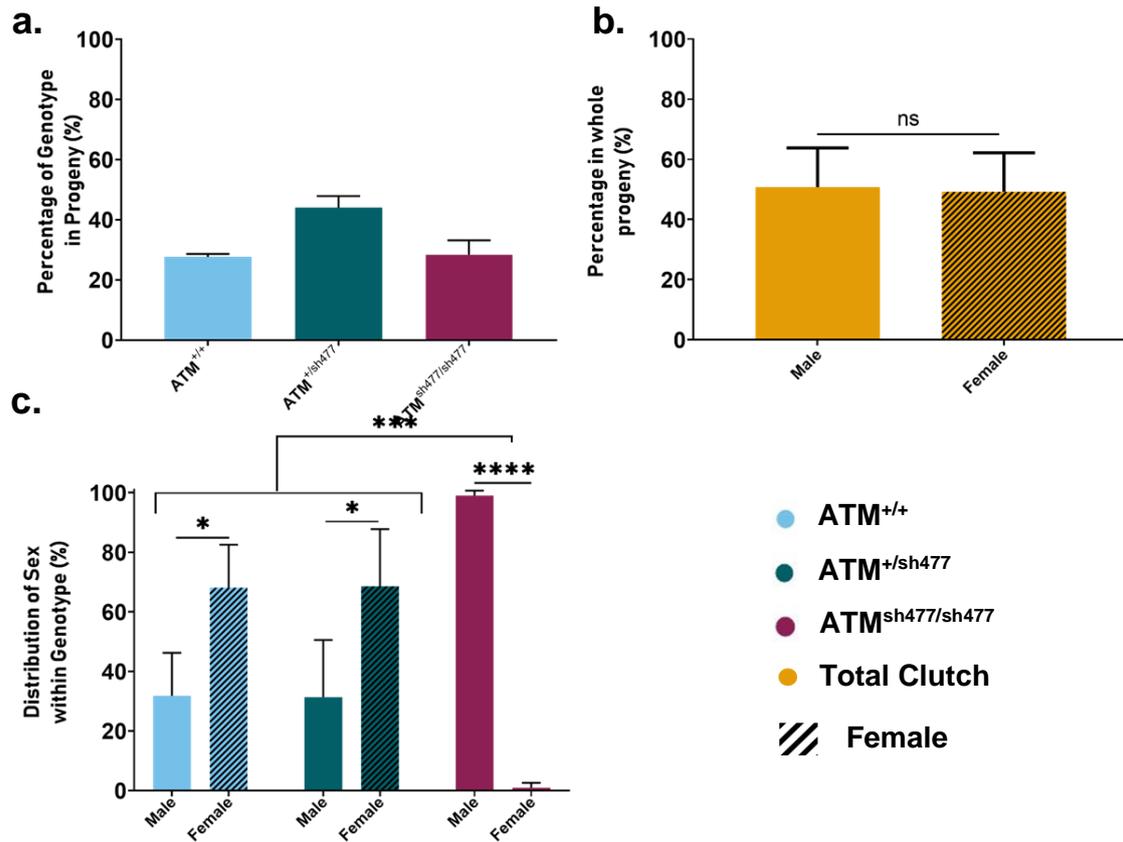


Figure 3.6 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish develop as male when raised at normal densities. **a.** Percentage of each genotype in the progeny of 3 $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-crosses raised at a density of 9.2 zebrafish/litre, $n=315$ fish. **b.** Sex distribution observed within the clutches from **a.** Data were analysed by unpaired t-test ($p=0.8883$) **c.** Sex distribution within the genotypes of the progeny from the same in-crosses. Data were analysed by a two-way ANOVA, with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test and Šidák's multiple comparisons test. Note: Only one $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ female fish was observed. Error bars in all graphs represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.4.**

3.2.3 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish Show no Increase in Radiosensitivity or Deficiency in the Somatic DNA Damage Repair Response

3.2.3.1 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish do not Exhibit any Increase in their Radiosensitivity

Radiosensitivity and deficiency in the DNA damage response is a hallmark of ATM deficient cells (Lavin and Shiloh, 1997, Kishi and Lu, 2002, Meyn, 1995). Additionally, ATM KO models in mouse and rat also exhibit radiosensitivity (Laposa et al., 2004). Furthermore, in a zebrafish ATM morpholino (MO) knockdown model, morphant embryos treated at 6 hpf with ionising radiation exhibited extreme sensitivity that presented as morphological abnormalities by 48 hpf, such as extreme curvature of the trunk and tail, developmental retardation, loss of pigment and loss of integration of the yolk sack. By 72 hpf all irradiated ATM MO-injected zebrafish had died (Imamura and Kishi, 2005). Therefore, if these morpholino effects were specific for ATM, we postulated that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish should exhibit similar sensitivity to irradiation.

We have demonstrated maternal inheritance of *ATM* mRNA in early zebrafish embryos (**figure 3.2 above**). Based on this analysis, we propose that dosing of zebrafish with ionising radiation should take place after 24 hpf, to ensure the effects of IR in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae were not masked by maternal contribution of *ATM* mRNA.

In order to determine the effects of ionising radiation, we first established a suitable dosing range that would not be too harsh, and that would allow detection of any increase in radiosensitivity in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae. These initial experiments used wild type zebrafish. Preliminary data suggested that zebrafish were not particularly sensitive to a single dose of IR (data not shown). Therefore, a dosing protocol for multiple serial IR treatments was optimised, using morphology as a readout. Wild type zebrafish were treated daily between 1-4 dpf with either 8, 12, or 20 Gy of ionising radiation, and imaged for morphological analysis at 5 dpf (**figure 3.7**). Wild type zebrafish treated with serial doses of 8 Gy exhibit a small degree of sensitivity whereby gross morphology was not affected, but the eyes and head were slightly smaller, as was the swim bladder. The effects of radiation can also be seen in the development of the yolk sack; where compared to untreated controls, in 8 Gy treated zebrafish it is larger, more

spherical, and retains its yellowish hue, which suggests integration of the yolk sack has been delayed (Kimmel et al., 1995). In addition, on occasion a decrease in pigmentation was observed in the wild type zebrafish treated with 8 Gy. Zebrafish treated with 12 Gy also exhibited a decrease in eye and head size that appears to be worse than that seen in 8 Gy treated fish. Similarly, 12 Gy treated zebrafish show a delay in yolk sack integration and they appear more spherical i.e. less developed. The effects of irradiation can also be seen on the swim bladder, as no properly inflated swim bladder was observed. Loss of pigmentation was also more prevalent in 12 Gy treated zebrafish. The effects of 20 Gy on zebrafish were acute, with zebrafish exhibiting gross morphological abnormalities. 20 Gy treated zebrafish are much smaller and display extreme curvature, the head and eyes are noticeably smaller, and there is little to no integration of the yolk sack. Zebrafish treated with this high dose not only showed no inflation of a swim bladder, but no structure that resembles a developing swim bladder. Loss of pigmentation was also observed, along with the presence of a yellow/green hue in the epithelium of the trunk and head. All zebrafish treated with the highest dose exhibited pericardial oedema and were only able to twitch upon tactile stimulus. Therefore, the effects of serial treatment from 1-4 dpf with IR appear to be dose dependent, where treatment with 8, 12 and 20 Gy leads to an adequate range of radiosensitivity from mild effects to severe, and were therefore considered a suitable dose range to determine the radiosensitivity of $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish.

To determine if $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ were any more radiosensitive than their control siblings, the progeny from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated with either 8, 12 or 20 Gy daily from 1-4 dpf, and imaged at 5 dpf (**figure 3.8 a**). After imaging, DNA was extracted and each fish individually genotyped. $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish responded similarly to the optimisation experiment. The response was again dose dependent and the severity of effects of IR on eye, head, swim bladder and yolk sack size increased in line with the IR dose (**figure 3.8 a, left panel**). $ATM^{+/sh477}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish were also sensitive to the effects of IR, but the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ appeared no more sensitive to IR than their control siblings, as the morphological defects observed were comparable across all genotypes (**figure 3.8 a, right panel**).

We considered the possibility that 5 dpf may not have been enough time to observe any increased radiosensitivity after treatment with IR, and that allowing the zebrafish to develop to a later age past the point of independent feeding may allow a phenotype to become apparent. Thus, the effects of IR on $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish were assessed at 12 dpf. As zebrafish at 12 dpf are governed by ASPA 1986, alterations to the dosing protocol had to be made to lower the overall severity limit of the experiment. As the effects of IR after 5 dpf were unknown, the dose of IR was decreased. Treatment with IR at 48 hpf induced the DDR (see below **figure 3.9** (Morsli, personal communication), and therefore zebrafish from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated once at 48 hpf with either 2 or 8 Gy, and allowed to develop to 12 dpf. At this age the zebrafish were removed from the aquarium system, imaged and genotyped (**figure 3.8 b**). $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish treated with 2 or 8 Gy IR exhibited no morphological abnormalities compared to untreated controls (**figure 3.8 b left panel**). Eye and head size were comparable and the swim bladder was normally inflated. The yolk sack had also integrated normally into the gastrointestinal tract. Likewise, $ATM^{+/sh477}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ IR treated zebrafish exhibited no gross abnormalities at 12 dpf and were morphologically comparable to both untreated and IR treated $ATM^{+/+}$ controls (**figure 3.8 b, middle and right panel**). However, despite there being no obvious difference observed, analysis of the total length of individual fish show that 8 Gy treated zebrafish were significantly smaller (**figure 3.8 c**) than untreated zebrafish. Nevertheless, this decrease in size was to the same extent in all genotypes treated with 8 Gy, and there no differences were detected between $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. Therefore, in this assay, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit no detectable increase in radiosensitivity.

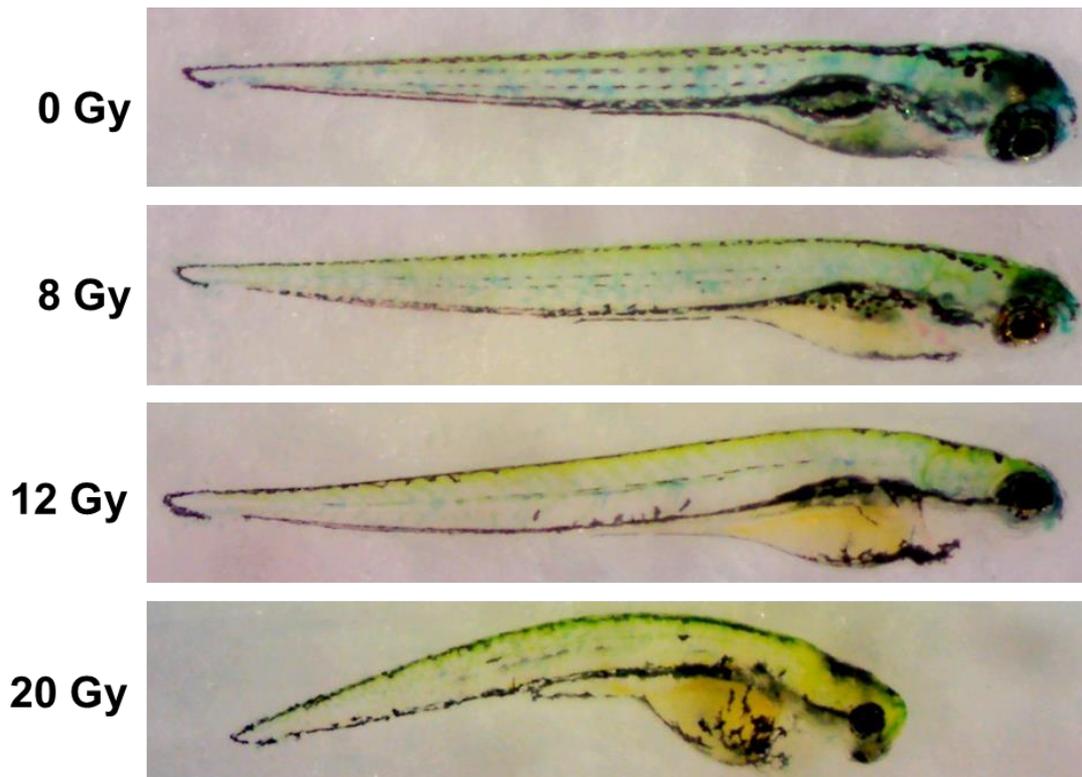


Figure 3.7 Optimisation of serial IR treatments for detection of radiosensitivity in wild type zebrafish. Zebrafish were treated daily from 1-4 dpf with the relevant dose of IR from a Caesium-137 irradiator and imaged for analysis at 5 dpf. After imaging, DNA was extracted and the zebrafish genotyped.

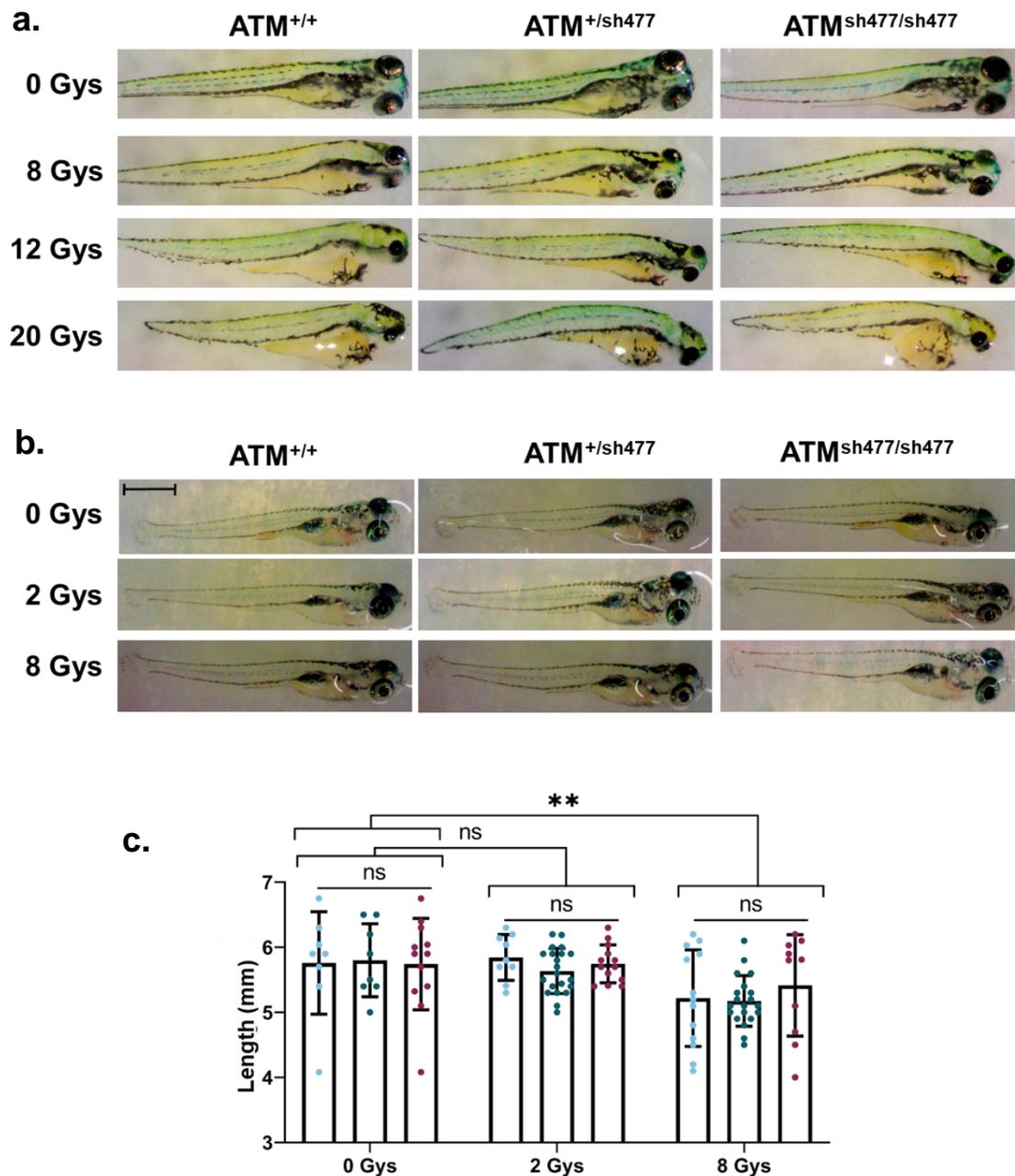


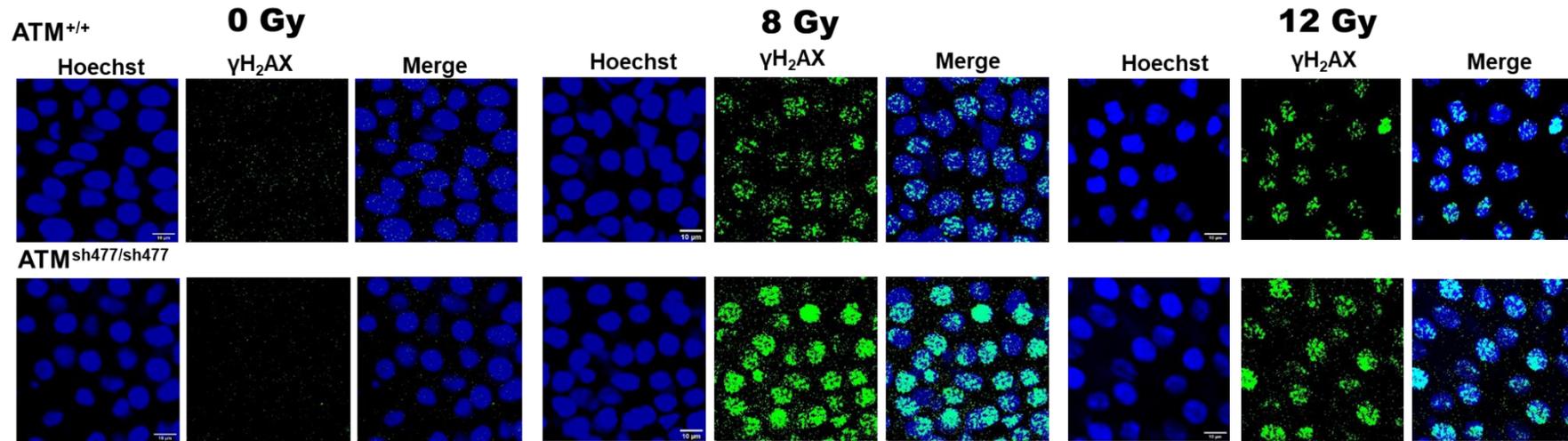
Figure 3.8 **ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish morphologically exhibit no increase in their radiosensitivity compared to ATM^{+/+} siblings.** **a.** Progeny from an ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross were subjected to serial doses of IR at 1-4 dpf and imaged at 5 dpf to investigate the developmental and morphological effects. n=96 fish. **b** Progeny from an ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross were subjected to a single dose of IR at 48 hpf and raised to 12 dpf, when they were imaged for investigation into the developmental and morphological effects of IR. n=128. Scale bar represents 1 mm. **c.** Quantification of the length of progeny from the ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross (b). Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.5**.

3.2.3.2 Somatic DDR in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish.

As $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish did not appear to be any more radiosensitive than their $ATM^{+/+}$ siblings, we next investigated DDR directly at the molecular level. H_2AX is a member of the H2A family of histones around which DNA is wrapped, and is the most common marker used for detection of DNA damage in situ (Kopp et al., 2019). H_2AX is phosphorylated (γH_2AX) in response to DNA damage and acts as a stable platform on which repair proteins accumulate (Yan et al., 2011, Podhorecka et al., 2010). In response to ds DNA damage, H_2AX is mainly activated through ATM kinase signalling, and upon activation, γH_2AX immunostaining reveals discrete nuclear puncta (Kobayashi et al., 2009, Burma et al., 2001, Yin et al., 2012, Takahashi et al., 2010, Tanaka et al., 2006b). To determine whether there was a defect at the molecular level in ATM signalling and activation of the DDR, we measured H_2AX phosphorylation in zebrafish larvae after induction of DNA damage.

Larvae from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated with 0, 8 or 12 Gy IR at 48 hpf. Larvae were fixed 1 hr post irradiation and immunostained for activated γH_2AX . The tails of individual larvae were genotyped, while the heads were mounted and imaged by confocal microscopy (**figure 3.9 a**). To determine activation, γH_2AX foci were quantified using a custom script (**see section 2.5.2.4**) and expressed as relative area of γH_2AX foci/cell (**figure 3.9 b**). As expected, larvae treated with IR show a significant dose dependent increase in γH_2AX foci (0 Gy v 8Gy v 12 Gy <0.0001) (**appendix 3.6**) (**figure 3.9 b**). There was no difference in basal γH_2AX activation (0 Gy) between $ATM^{+/+}$ and mutant larvae ($p=0.2095$). When the larvae were treated with 8 Gy IR, there was a significant difference in H_2AX activation ($p=0.0093$), with $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish showing increased expression. However, when treated a higher dose of 12 Gy, no significant differences were observed between the two genotypes ($p=0.0804$).

a.



b.

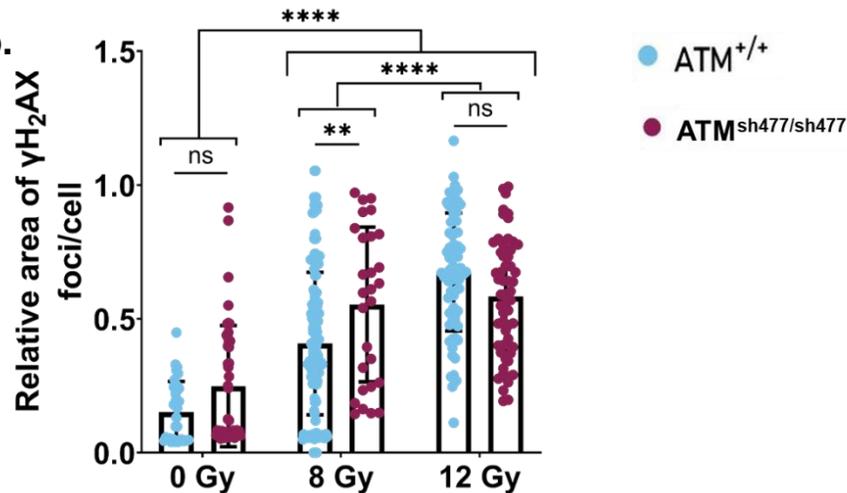


Figure 3.9 H2AX phosphorylation in ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} larval zebrafish. a. Zebrafish from an ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross were treated with 0 Gy, 8Gy or 12 Gy IR at 48 hpf. At 1 hr post irradiation, the larvae were fixed and immunostained with a γ H₂AX antibody (1:1000). Cranial epithelial cells were imaged for γ H₂AX foci. Scale bars represent 10 μ m. b. Quantification of foci in a. Foci were quantified by a custom script to determine the total area of the foci within a nucleus. The area of the γ H₂AX foci was then normalised to the area of the relevant nucleus. Data presented as the relative area of foci/cell. Error bars represent mean \pm -SD. Data were analysed by a two-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test and Šídák's multiple comparisons tests. ATM^{+/+}; 0 Gy n=34 cells, 8 Gy n=146 cells, 12 Gy n=78 cells. ATM^{sh477/sh477}: 0 Gy n=44 cells, 8 Gys n=28 cells, 12 Gy n=57. N=1 repeat. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.6**

As outlined in detail in **chapter 1, section 1.2.4.1**, AT patients suffer severe immunodeficiency as a result of the inability of an ATM deficient system to repair endogenous DNA breaks due to V(D)J and CSR events during antibody production. For this reason, AT patients have lower overall circulating levels of antibodies. Despite having the CSR initiator activation-induced cytidine deaminase (AID) that has the ability to regulate CSR, zebrafish heavy chain loci do not undergo CSR (Wakae et al., 2006). However, they do undergo V(D)J recombination (Weinstein et al., 2009, Jiang et al., 2011, Danilova and Steiner, 2002, Zimmerman et al., 2011), a process that in humans has been shown to utilise ATM (Perkins et al., 2002, Dujka et al., 2010, Bredemeyer et al., 2006b). Therefore, we hypothesised that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ may also have lower levels of immunoglobulins due to the inability to repair these dsDNA breaks.

Zebrafish possess three antibody classes; IgM and IgD which are homologous to IgM and IgD in mice and humans, and a third isotype that has so far only been detected in bony fish, IgZ/T (IgZ) (Zimmerman et al., 2011, Danilova et al., 2000, Danilova et al., 2005, Hansen et al., 2005, Gambón-Deza et al., 2010, Ryo et al., 2010). In order to determine whether $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ could have lower levels of immunoglobulins, RNA was extracted from whole $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish siblings at 3 months old, and the level of each immunoglobulin heavy chain mRNA was determined by RT-qPCR (**figure 3.10**). There were no significant differences observed in the expression of any immunoglobulin heavy chains between $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$.

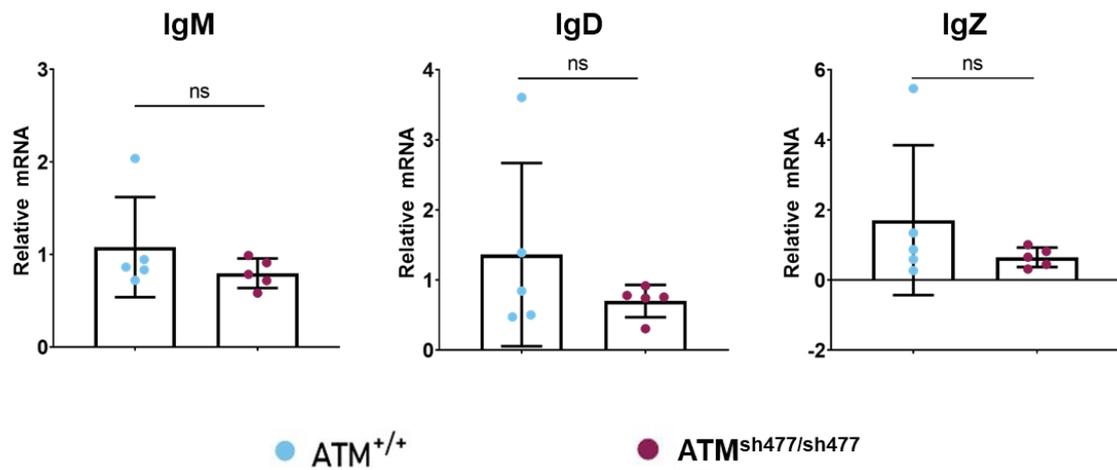


Figure 3.10 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ show no inability to produce immunoglobulins. RNA was extracted from 5 $ATM^{+/+}$ and 5 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish at 3 months old, and relative levels of immunoglobulin heavy chains were assessed by RT-qPCR. Data were analysed by Mann Whitney test. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Data were analysed by a Mann Whitney test and statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.7**.

3.2.3.3 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish do not Exhibit an Increase in Senescence

Cellular senescence is characterised by a prolonged and irreversible cessation of the cell cycle, activation of tumour suppressor genes, alterations to cellular metabolism, and changes in cellular secretions (senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP)) (Hayflick and Moorhead, 1961, Gorgoulis et al., 2019). It functions in many healthy biological processes, such as pregnancy (Rajagopalan and Long, 2012), embryogenesis (Muñoz-Espín et al., 2013, Storer et al., 2013, Biran and Krizhanovsky, 2015), and tissue repair (Jun and Lau, 2010, Nishizawa et al., 2016). However, it is mainly associated with aging (van Deursen, 2014) and is protective against the oncogenic transformation of cells (Campisi, 2013, Loaiza and Demaria, 2016). Senescence that is not associated with a developmental process is largely induced by cellular stressors such as DNA damage, elevated ROS, aberrant oncogenic expression, hypoxia, mitochondrial dysfunction, telomere shortening, and impairment of autophagy, all of which also activate ATM (Wei and Ji, 2018, Gorgoulis et al., 2019) (**see chapter 1, sections 1.2.2, 1.2.3 and 1.2.4**). ATM has been shown to play a number of roles in senescence, however, whether it positively or negatively regulates it is still not clear, and it is likely to be cell type and context dependent (Yosef et al., 2017, Zhao et al., 2020a, Aird and Zhang, 2015, Strzyz, 2017, Sunderland et al., 2020, Qian et al., 2018, Efeyan et al., 2009, Qian et al., 2017, Li et al., 2020). Nevertheless, loss of ATM in humans is associated with accelerated ageing of AT patients, and increased cellular senescence acquired from endogenous DNA damage (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.4.7**). Therefore, we postulated that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish could exhibit an endogenous DNA damage senescence associated phenotype.

Six genes that are considered markers of senescence were chosen for mRNA expression analysis. These were markers of cell cycle arrest, *CCNG1* (Cyclin-g1), *p53*, *p21* and *p16*, and the proinflammatory markers *IL-1β* and *IL-6* (Gorgoulis et al., 2019). RNA was extracted from 5 adult ATM^{+/+} and 5 ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish (3 months) for RT-qPCR analysis. No significant differences were observed in any senescence marker genes between ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish (**figure 3.11**).

It was considered that zebrafish in an aquarium environment would not experience enough endogenous DNA damage by 3 months of age to cause a difference in senescence. Therefore, we sought to induce DNA damage with the hypothesis that after a large DNA damage insult an ATM deficient system would

struggle to repair it as effectively, leading to an increase in senescent cells. Previous unpublished research (Morsli, personal communication) showed that after induction of DNA damage by ionising radiation at 48 hpf, senescence markers persisted to 12 dpf. Therefore, progeny from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated with either 2 or 8 Gy at 48 hpf and allowed to develop to 12 dpf. At 12 dpf, zebrafish were tail clipped, bodies flash frozen and tails genotyped. Once genotyped, 4 $ATM^{+/+}$ and 4 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish were pooled for RNA extraction and subsequent RT-qPCR (**figure 3.12**). Time constraints due to Covid-19 only allowed two repeats to be carried out; as such, no statistical analysis could be performed. However, based on the data collected there does appear to be an irradiation dose dependent increase in the expression of cell cycle arrest genes (*CCNG1*, *p21*, *p16* and *p53*) and pro inflammatory genes (*IL-1 β* and *IL-6*) in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish compared to the $ATM^{+/+}$ siblings. This tentatively suggests that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ fish may show increased cellular senescence after DNA damage induction.

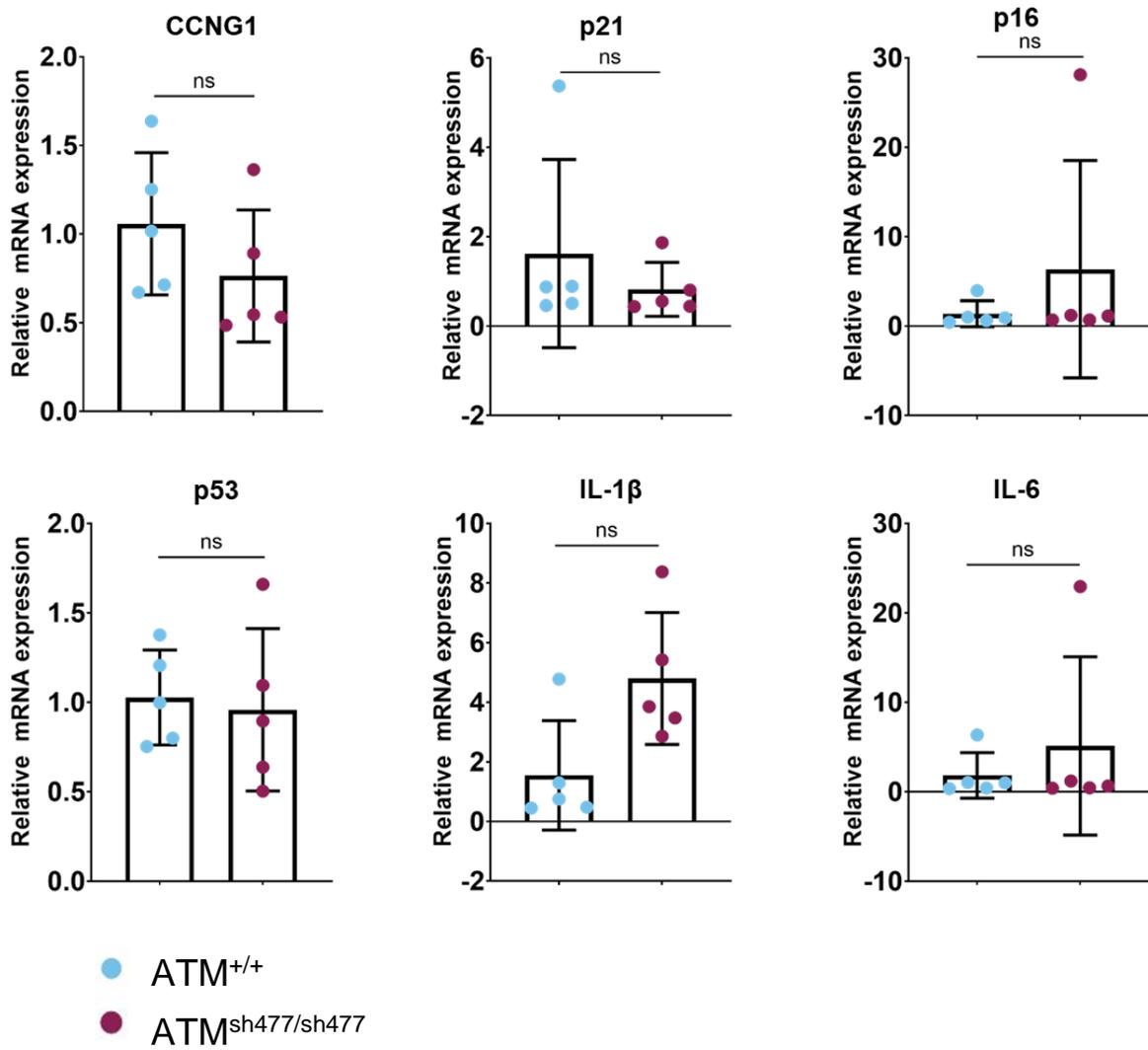


Figure 3.11 mRNA expression of senescence markers in adult zebrafish. RNA was extracted from 5 $ATM^{+/+}$ and 5 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ adult zebrafish (3 months) and expression of senescence markers mRNA analysed by RT-qPCR. Data were normalised to expression of β -actin as a control. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.8**.

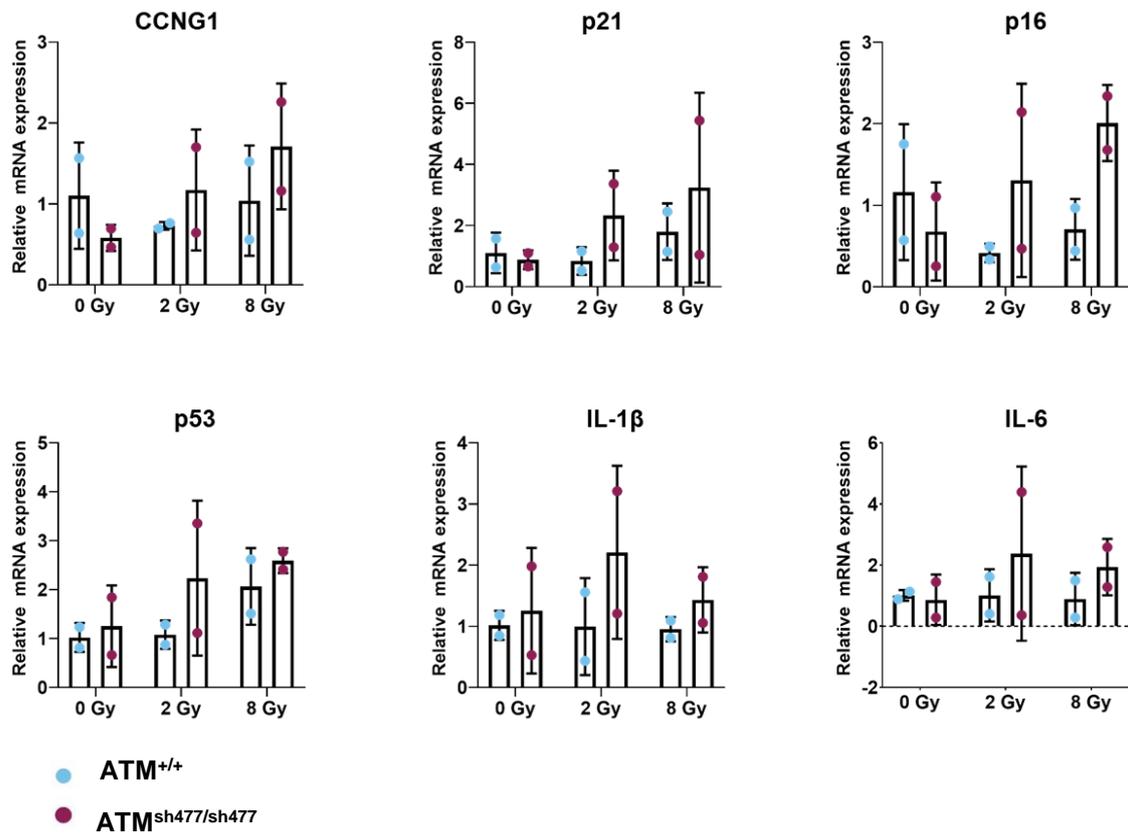


Figure 3.12 mRNA expression of senescence markers in 12 dpf zebrafish after induction of DNA damage. Zebrafish were treated with either 0, 2, or 8 Gy of IR at 48 hpf. At 12 dpf 4 fish of each genotype were pooled and RNA extracted for analysis by RT-qPCR. Data were normalised to expression of β -actin as a control. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. N= 2

3.2.4 Investigations into the Possibility of Genetic Compensation by ATR

The evidence above, that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish do not exhibit any increase in radiosensitivity or in deficiency in activating the DDR, is surprising. Recently there has been much debate over the reliability of morpholino (MO) knockdown (KD) (morphants) compared with stable KO. In the former, phenotypic observations have *post hoc* been attributed to off target effects of the MO, and in the latter, the lack of an observable phenotype has often been attributed to genetic compensation (GC) by upregulated expression of homologues or genes from the same family as the mutated gene (Peng, 2019, El-Brolosy et al., 2019). Therefore, we considered that the lack of an expected phenotype in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish might also be attributed to GC. Recent studies have reported that for GC to occur requires the NMD of a mutant mRNA transcript carrying a premature stop codon, and that GC is dependent on the mutant transcript and not the lack of a functional protein (El-Brolosy et al., 2019, Ma et al., 2019). While the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutant transcript does contain a premature stop codon, it appears that it does not undergo NMD, as no difference in the expression of *ATM* mRNA is observed between $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish (**figure 3.2**). However, given that there is evidence to suggest that GC may be differentially regulated in a number of contexts (Ma et al., 2019), and that our understanding of how GC occurs is still potentially incomplete, it was decided GC had to be considered in this context.

Upregulation of genes in GC appears to be linked to sequence similarity between the target gene and genes upregulated in its place (Ma et al., 2019). If GC were to occur in the context of the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutation, then perhaps genes containing a similar sequence to *ATM* would be upregulated. However, a BLASTN search with the wild type *ATM* cDNA sequence yielded no results of a zebrafish gene with a similar sequence (data not shown). As outlined in detail in **chapter 1, section 1.2.1**, *ATM* belongs to the large PIKK family of proteins, and it was thought members of this family could be a possible target for upregulation. However, pairwise alignments of *ATM* with these 5 genes showed no areas of high sequence homology (data not shown). Nevertheless, one family member, *ATR*, canonically functions in the DDR in response to ssDNA breaks but has also been shown to function in response to dsDNA breaks (Igoucheva et al., 2006, Duursma et al., 2013, Cimprich, 2007, Gong et al., 2017). Therefore we performed some preliminary investigations

into whether ATR could be responsible for GC in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish and could explain their robustness to DNA damage.

In common with ATM, ATR is phosphorylated upon activation. However, we lacked a zebrafish specific phospho-antibody that would enable us to detect any increased activation of ATR in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, along with a zebrafish specific antibody that would allow us to detect overall endogenous protein expression. Therefore, we chose to determine if gene expression was upregulated in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish by RT-qPCR.

Initially we investigated basal levels in adult fish, assuming that if GC were to occur, the endogenous DNA damage over time could be enough to induce an increase in expression. RNA was extracted from adult (3 months) zebrafish and analysed by RT-qPCR (**figure 3.13**). Again we found no evidence that mutant *ATM* undergoes NMD, as comparable levels are expressed in both $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. There was also no significant difference in the expression of ATR between genotypes.

It was questioned whether massive DNA damage would need to be induced in order to see an increase in expression, and that perhaps prolonged DNA damage could induce an upregulation in expression. Therefore, progeny from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were subjected to serial treatments of IR from 1-4 dpf, and RNA extracted for analysis at 5dpf (**figure 3.14**). No significant difference was observed in expression of ATM or ATR between genotypes either with or without IR. Interestingly, treatment with IR did not significantly increase expression of either gene at this time point. These results suggest that ATR expression is not upregulated in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish.

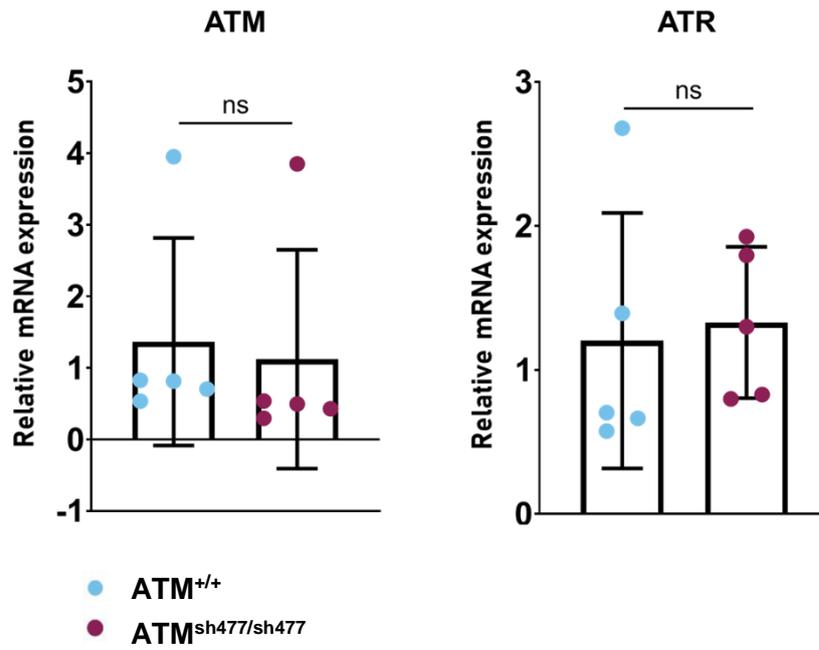


Figure 3.13 Expression of ATR mRNA is not upregulated in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. RNA from 5 $ATM^{+/+}$ and 5 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ sexed matched siblings was extracted and expression of *ATM* and *ATR* mRNA was analysed by RT-qPCR. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 3.9**.

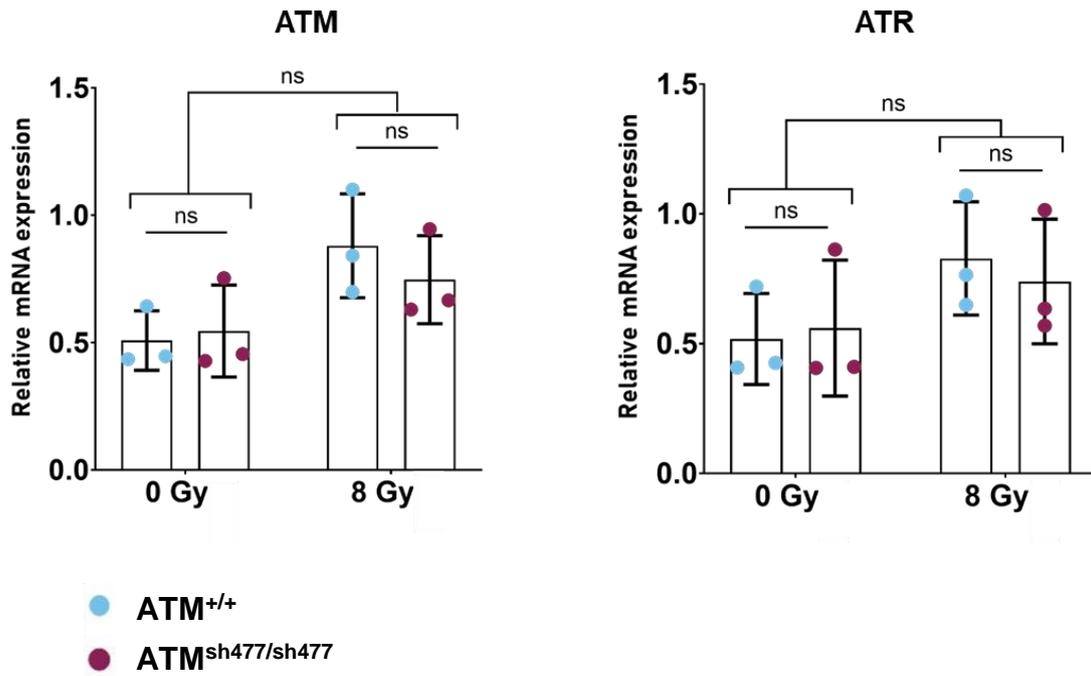


Figure 3.14 Expression of ATR mRNA is not upregulated in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish after induction of DNA damage. Progeny from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross was serially treated from 1-4 dpf with 8 Gy IR, and RNA extracted at 5 dpf for RT-qPCR analysis. Data were analysed by a two-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Šídák's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 3.10**.

3.3 Discussion

3.3.1 *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* Zebrafish have Phenotypes that are Consistent with Knockout of ATM Signalling

Classical AT patients generally have null mutations, leading to complete ablation of expression of the ATM protein (Gilad et al., 1996). Other cases of classical AT may have very low ATM protein expression, however, in these cases it is evident that the ATM DNA damage response signalling pathway is defective (Stankovic et al., 1998, Micol et al., 2011a, Concannon and Gatti, 1997, Li and Swift, 2000, Fievet et al., 2019). Therefore, to ensure the *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish model is a KO model, and is molecularly an accurate recapitulation of the AT disease, expression of ATM in these zebrafish was characterised.

The *ATM^{sh477}* allele was found to consist of a 6 bp deletion in exon 6, leading to a frameshift mutation, resulting in a downstream premature stop codon (**figure 3.1**). This type of truncating mutation is frequently found in AT patients (Mitui et al., 2005, Concannon and Gatti, 1997, Li and Swift, 2000, Gilad et al., 1996, Micol et al., 2011b, Stray-Pedersen et al., 2004, Sandoval et al., 1999, Stankovic et al., 1998). This mutation was predicted to cause ablation of ATM signalling in one of two ways; either the mutant mRNA would undergo NMD (Hug et al., 2016), or a truncated protein would be produced. This truncated protein would be expected to be non-functional, as it would lack the essential kinase domain, as well as most protein-protein binding sites (**chapter 1, section 1.2**).

3.3.1.1 Nonsense Mediated Decay of the *ATM^{sh477}* Transcript

Our data indicate that the *ATM^{sh477}* mRNA transcript does not undergo NMD (**figure 3.2**). SMG1, another member of the PIKK family, plays a fundamental role in NMD (Causier et al., 2017). Given that PIKK family members have significant cross over in functionality (**see section 3.3.2.2 below**), that the key role of ATM seems to be as a master regulator of cellular homeostasis (**chapter 1, section 1.2.2 and 1.2.3**), and that ATM and SMG1 share substrate specificity (Brumbaugh et al., 2004), it is conceivable that ATM itself may play a role in NMD, particularly as there appears to be redundancy in the NMD pathway in zebrafish after loss of SMG1 (Lloyd and Davies, 2013, Wittkopp et al., 2009). Furthermore, after DNA damage, ATM has been shown to activate UPF1, an initiator of the NMD pathway (Causier et al., 2017).

Therefore, loss of signalling of ATM may cause perturbations in the NMD pathway, and as a result, the ATM mutant transcript itself may not be degraded. However, given that NMD not only functions in clearance of mutants transcripts, but also functions in homeostatic gene expression (Nickless et al., 2017), and the NMD pathway is essential for zebrafish embryonic development and survival (Wittkopp et al., 2009), it is unlikely that this pathway is drastically perturbed in *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish, as they do not have a corresponding phenotype.

For NMD decay to work effectively, normal stop codons and deleterious premature stop codons need to be distinguishable. Canonically, mRNA transcripts that contain a premature stop codon upstream of an exon-exon junction are marked by an exon junction protein complex (EJC), and are readily degraded. In this mechanism, transcripts with a premature stop codon 50-55 bp upstream of the exon-exon junction are most efficiently degraded (Nagy and Maquat, 1998, Thermann et al., 1998, Zhang et al., 1998, Hug et al., 2016, Le Hir et al., 2001, Nicholson et al., 2010, Lindeboom et al., 2016). Although in the *ATM^{sh477}* transcript, the predicted premature stop codon occurs upstream of an exon-exon junction, it occurs 75 bp upstream and therefore may not be as readily degraded.

Interestingly, NMD has been found to be less efficient, and significantly decreased if there is a large distance between the premature stop codon and the normal translation termination site (Lindeboom et al., 2016). ATM is an exceptionally large protein, and the *ATM* zebrafish mRNA transcript consists of 62 exons and is ~ 9.2 Kb in length ([Ensembl-November 2020](#)). The *ATM^{sh477}* transcript has ~8.4 Kb between the predicted premature stop codon and the normal translation termination site. Additionally, certain RNA-binding protein motifs in the mRNA found +/- 100 nucleotides either side of the premature stop codon have been shown to alter the efficiency of NMD (Lindeboom et al., 2016, Ray et al., 2013). The ATM transcript has one of these RNA binding motifs directly after the predicted premature stop codon (**appendix 3.11**), and this may also alter the NMD of the mutant transcript.

3.3.1.2 Detection of the ATM Protein in Zebrafish by Western Blot

Detection of the protein was attempted by western blot with antibodies raised to the amino acids 1-120 of zebrafish ATM, upstream of the CRISPR induced mutation (**figure 3.3**). It was predicted that the full-length protein would be detected in *ATM^{+/+}*

and not in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. Furthermore, it was plausible that by raising the antibodies to this antigen, any truncated protein might also be detected. Endogenous full-length ATM was not detected in $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish (**figure 3.4 and 3.5 c**). Nevertheless, the zATM1 antibody is capable of detecting the recombinant peptide that it was raised to (**figure 3.5 a**).

Both antibodies raised against zebrafish ATM have significant cross reactivity with other components of zebrafish lysates, as can be seen from multiple bands on the blots. There is some evidence of the occurrence of alternative transcripts of ATM (Menotta et al., 2012, Pozzi et al., 2020, Rogatcheva et al., 2007, Menotta et al., 2017, Kralovicova et al., 2016), however, if and when these are produced is controversial. Nonetheless, if present, reactivity of the antibodies with these smaller transcripts may account for the banding patterns observed. However, the possibility of an alternative functional transcript that does not contain the mutant exon 6 is unlikely. First, exon 6 is not a cassette exon; therefore skipping of only this exon would still introduce a frameshift mutation and a subsequent premature stop codon. Second, it is also unlikely that an alternative but functional transcript of the ATM protein is expressed in ATM mutants, as $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit a phenotype that is consistent with ablation of ATM signalling (**see section 3.3.2 above and chapter 4**). It is much more likely that the antibodies are reacting to other similar protein sequences within the lysates. However, before production of the antibodies to the 120 amino acid immunogen, a protein blast search indicated a small probability of there being similar amino acid sequences in the zebrafish proteome.

In AT patients carrying truncating mutations throughout the length of the ATM gene, the mutant mRNA transcript does not undergo NMD as patients have normal *ATM* mRNA expression levels. However, the majority of truncating mutations show no expression of ATM at the protein level (Becker-Catania et al., 2000). This indicates that the mutant protein rather than the mutant mRNA is unstable, and is quickly degraded. Mounting evidence suggests that there is compensation for loss of the ATM at the protein level, but this compensation is not able to take place in the presence of a full-length ATM protein that is non-functional, to the detriment of the organism (**see section 3.3.2.2**). Consequently, although the ATM^{sh477} transcript carrying a truncating mutation may not undergo NMD, the ATM signalling pathway is expected to be perturbed in these fish, as the mutant protein is either likely degraded, or remains but is truncated, and is therefore non-functional. Two bands, approximately the same size

that the truncated protein was predicted to be, were strongly detected in ATM^{sh477/sh477} lysates (**figure 3.5 b**). However, these bands were also observed in ATM^{+/+} lysates, albeit at very low levels. Therefore, while the bands observed in ATM^{sh477/sh477} lysates may be truncated ATM, it would be improbable that an ATM transcript would also be detected in ATM^{+/+} without the corresponding mutation. Moreover, due to a testicular pathology (**see chapter 4**), the ATM^{sh477/sh477} mutants are likely to have a different tissue contribution to the whole fish lysates that were used. Therefore, we cannot rule out that the bands in question are not a tissue specific contribution from ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. Future experiments carried out to detect ATM via western blot from ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish should aim to use protein extracts from discrete tissues, such as muscle, brain, or eye, to ensure the results are due to expression levels in the relevant genotypes, and not contributions of specific tissues.

3.3.1.3 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish are All Males, Consistent with Loss of the HR Pathway in Zebrafish

ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish develop as male (**figure 3.6**). This phenotype is consistent with loss of the DDR pathway in zebrafish, as many zebrafish models that are KO for HR repair proteins also exhibit this female to male sex reversal (Botthof et al., 2017, Ramanagoudr-Bhojappa et al., 2018, Rodriguez-Mari et al., 2010, Rodríguez-Mari et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010, Cayuela et al., 2019). Zebrafish sex determination is multifactorial and tends to stem from polygenic and environmental factors, although, the exact mechanisms are still relatively poorly understood (Liew and Orbán, 2014). Zebrafish initially develop as hermaphrodites, but with an immature juvenile ovary. In ~50% of zebrafish the ovary continues to develop through oogenesis, whereas in the other ~50% the ovary degenerates and they develop male gonads (Liew and Orbán, 2014, Uchida et al., 2002, Maack and Segner, 2003, Wang et al., 2007). In DDR deficient zebrafish mutants, the female to male sex reversal is attributed to increased p53 mediated apoptosis in germ cells in the juvenile ovary. Subsequently, this increase in apoptosis compromises the developing ovary, leading to masculinisation of the gonads (Rodriguez-Mari et al., 2010).

The relation of ATM to meiotic recombination and germ cell apoptosis will be discussed in more detail in **chapter 4**. It should be noted that loss of primordial germ cells has also been associated with female to male sex reversal in zebrafish

(Siegfried and Nüsslein-Volhard, 2008, Tzung et al., 2015), and this will also be discussed further in the context of results presented in **chapter 4**. While we could not show through ablation of ATM expression, or expression of a truncated protein that the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish are KO for ATM, given that they display the same female to male sex reversal observed in other zebrafish DDR mutants, it strongly indicates that at least in the gonads this model has lost ATM signalling, and as such is an ATM KO model.

The data in **figure 3.6** shows that while there is a very clear female to male sex reversal in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, the remaining $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{+/sh477}$ zebrafish are strongly skewed towards female. The consequences of this were that very few age and sexed matched $ATM^{+/+}$ siblings were available for experimentation, particularly in adult behavioural analysis (**see chapter 5, section 5.2.3**), resulting in a decrease in the numbers of fish assayed. The cause of this skew is not understood but it may be due to random chance, some unknown environmental factor or it may be due to compensation within to catch to offset $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ female to male sex reversal. However, there is no experimental evidence to support this and further investigation would be required.

3.3.2 Radiosensitivity and the DDR in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish

3.3.2.1 Measuring the DDR in ATM Mutant Zebrafish

In the experiments presented in this chapter, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish are no more radiosensitive than wild type larvae. This was unexpected, as most other models of AT and AT patients do exhibit an increase. NHEJ appears to be the favoured mechanism of DNA repair in zebrafish (Liu et al., 2012a, Vierstraete et al., 2017); therefore, as ATM is predominantly thought to function in HR, there may be very little difference in the repair of genotoxic insults between mutant wild type zebrafish. This is supported by evidence that in the morphological studies detailed above (**figure 3.8**), $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutants appeared to have the same developmental and gross anatomical response to treatment with IR as $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish.

In order to understand further the capacity for ATM deficient zebrafish to repair DNA damage, we looked at their ability to activate an ATM downstream target and molecular biomarker of DNA damage, γH_2AX (**figure 3.9**). Interestingly, ATM mutant

larvae exhibited no deficiency in their ability to activate H₂AX. In **figure 3.9 c**, ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish larvae treated with 8 Gy IR show significantly more activated H₂AX than ATM^{+/+} zebrafish treated with the same dose. However, it is not clear if the mutant cells were more efficient at activating H₂AX, resulting in an increased in foci, or if they were less efficient at repairing the DNA breaks, leading to a decrease in foci in ATM^{+/+} where the damage had already been repaired. Nonetheless, this difference in γH₂AX foci is lost when the larvae are treated with a higher dose of 12 Gy IR. These differences may reflect variance in the response to higher doses of IR (Vierstraete et al., 2017), however, they likely also reflect the fact that this experiment was only done once. As a result of time constraints and significant disruption due to Covid-19, only one repeat of the experiment was performed. However, the data were included as a minimum of three fish had been analysed for all experimental conditions (with the exception of ATMs^{h477/sh477} treated with 8 Gy, where only two fish were analysed) **(see appendix 3.6 for numbers of fish analysed)**.

While H₂AX is thought to be primarily activated by ATM, it can also be activated by other elements of the DDR pathway such as ATR and DNA-PKcs (Mukherjee et al., 2006, Ward and Chen, 2001, Baritaud et al., 2012). Furthermore, ionising radiation creates a number of different types of DNA lesions, and H₂AX is activated in response to many of them (Feng et al., 2017, Kopp et al., 2019, Vierstraete et al., 2017, Liu et al., 2012a). Therefore, γH₂AX may not be the most accurate measure of ATM activity. Other avenues for assessing the DDR in these mutant zebrafish are explored further in **section 3.3.3.1** below. Interestingly, *brac2* deficient zebrafish are also capable of inducing H₂AX activation to a similar degree as wild type controls but do exhibit deficiencies in HR (Vierstraete et al., 2017).

We next looked at the outcome of somatic recombination in mutant ATM zebrafish (**figure 3.10**). The diversity of immunoglobulin variable regions is a result of somatic recombination events in immune cells (Chi et al., 2020). These sustained recombination events are mediated by ATM (Perkins et al., 2002, Dujka et al., 2010, Callen et al., 2007a, Bredemeyer et al., 2006b, Liao and Van Dyke, 1999, Callen et al., 2007b, Zha et al., 2009), and as such AT patients have decreased levels of circulating immunoglobulins (**chapter 1, section 1.2.4.1**). However, ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} show no statistical differences in the levels of immunoglobulin heavy chain mRNA, allowing the tentative suggestion that there is no insufficiency in the repair of these V(D)J breaks. Despite the evidence that in humans, repair of these

breaks requires ATM, and ATM is primarily thought to function in HR, repair of V(D)J associated breaks is exclusively done through the classical NHEJ pathway (Zha et al., 2009). In this pathway, ATM serves to stabilise RAG-mediated DNA ds break complexes, and not directly in the repair of these breaks (Bredemeyer et al., 2006a). Furthermore, both DNA-PKcs and XRCC4-like factor (XLF) have been shown to have functionally overlapping roles with ATM in this context (Kumar et al., 2014, Zha et al., 2011a, Zha et al., 2009, Zha et al., 2011b, Lee et al., 2013, Gapud and Sleckman, 2011, Gapud et al., 2011). Therefore, it is suggested that the major role of ATM in V(D)J recombination is not the direct repair of the DNA breaks, but the safeguarding genomic stability, as it is responsible for directing cells towards apoptosis, in which V(D)J recombination has gone awry (Callen et al., 2007a).

Despite the functional redundancies in ATM, XLF and DNA-PKcs in the classical NHEJ repair of V(D)J linked DNA breaks, the fact that loss of ATM in humans causes some deficiencies in V(D)J recombination, and preliminary data suggests that it appears not to in zebrafish, is interesting. It may denote fundamental differences in DNA repair in general between teleosts and humans. This is supported by the fact that zebrafish do not have an orthologue for BRCA1, a gene in humans which is essential for DNA repair and repair signalling in a number of pathways reviewed (Zhao et al., 2019). Additionally, zebrafish have an orthologue of the CSR gene *AID* but do not undergo CSR (Wakae et al., 2006).

3.3.2.2 Compensation in the DDR

Preliminary data suggests that there is likely no genetic compensation for loss of the ATM protein in the DDR, as expression of *ATR* mRNA was not upregulated after DNA damage in *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish (**figure 3.12 and 3.13**). It should be noted that upregulation of expression of DNA-PKcs mRNA was not investigated, and could be considered in future work (see **section 3.3.3.1** to follow). However, due to limited current knowledge of GC, it appears to require the NMD of the mutant transcript (Peng, 2019), which does not happen in the case of the *ATM^{sh477}* transcript, therefore it is unlikely to occur. There is evidence in the literature to suggest there is likely some compensation for loss of ATM, but that it occurs at the protein level by activation of ATR and DNA-PKcs, as outlined below.

As already described in **section 3.3.2.1** above, there is functional redundancy between ATM, DNA-PKcs and XLF in DNA repair of V(D)J recombination breaks (Kumar et al., 2014, Zha et al., 2011b, Zha et al., 2009, Zha et al., 2011a, Lee et al., 2013, Gapud et al., 2011, Gapud and Sleckman, 2011). ATM, ATR and DNA-PKcs all phosphorylate the same S/T-Q motif (Kim et al., 1999), and exhibit a high degree of overlap in their downstream target pool (Yue et al., 2020). Additionally, they all exhibit capabilities of activating each other, suggesting that they use each other to amplify the DDR, and while canonically ATM and DNA-PKcs are both activated in response to ds DNA breaks and ATR in response to ss DNA breaks, it has now been shown that ATR is activated in response to ds breaks too (Adams et al., 2006, Jazayeri et al., 2006, Myers and Cortez, 2006, Tomimatsu et al., 2009). Therefore, it is conceivable that in the absence of ATM there are alternative means of activating the DDR cascade. In *in vitro* studies in ATM deficient cells treated with ionising radiation, the DDR signalling cascade was still activated, albeit to a lower level than in cells with ATM. In these ATM^{-/-} cells, ATR was found to regulate cell check point proteins, while DNA-PKcs was found to regulate proteins that function in the repair of DNA (Tomimatsu et al., 2009). This has been corroborated by Schlam-Babayov (2020), as they also revealed that ATR and DNA-PK partially compensate for ATM's absence in AT cells (Schlam-Babayov et al., 2020). Further emphasising the overlap in functionality of the PIKK kinases, ATM^{-/-} dnapkcs^{-/-} double mutant mice exhibit embryonic lethality (Gurley and Kemp, 2001, Sekiguchi et al., 2001, Gladdy et al., 2006). The data outlined thus far strongly suggests that while ATM is an important regulator of the DDR in response to genotoxic insults, its loss may be compensated for. Given that DNA damage poses one of the greatest intrinsic risks to maintaining cell homeostasis and viability in eukaryotic cells, protein compensation or functional redundancy amongst proteins in the DDR is not unusual (Kolb et al., 2017, Lam et al., 2008, Parsons and Elder, 2003, Lin et al., 2015).

In recent years, a number of kinase dead (KinD) mouse models of AT have been generated (Yamamoto et al., 2016, Daniel et al., 2012, Tal et al., 2018). These mice express the full-length ATM protein but have mutations that ablate the kinase activity. Mice with kinase dead mutations have a far more severe phenotype compared to ATM^{-/-} mice and exhibit embryonic lethality. Furthermore, ATMT^{KinD/-} cells are far more sensitive to DNA damaging agents and exhibit increased deficiency in somatic HR compared to ATM^{-/-} cells (Yamamoto et al., 2016, Chen et al., 2017, Rass

et al., 2013). This indicates a dominant negative affect of kinase dead ATM, which has been observed in many cancers caused by somatic mutations in ATM (Scott et al., 2002, Yamamoto et al., 2012b, Yamamoto et al., 2016). This dominant negative affect is most likely caused by a steric hindrance of sorts, whereby the kinase dead ATM is unable to participate in the DDR phosphorylation cascade, and its presence prevents access of machinery that is able to compensate for its loss as it does in ATM^{-/-} cells.

3.3.2.3 Radiosensitivity in the ATM^{sh477/sh477} KO Model versus the ATM MO Induced KD Model

The finding that developing larval ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish did not exhibit any increased radiosensitivity was surprising, as zebrafish with MO induced KD of ATM exhibit extreme radiosensitivity, and even lethality without IR around 72 hpf (Imamura and Kishi, 2005). This raises questions as to why the sensitivity to IR and severity in phenotype is so different between the two models. It should be noted that MO KD models might not always recapitulate the molecular phenotype that they aim for, with phenotypic observations being more severe in MO KD compared to KO models (Peng, 2019, Kok et al., 2015). This has raised questions about their suitability as disease models. The reasons why the ATM KD radiosensitive phenotype is more severe than the KO are many and varied. First, KD with MOs are known to cause off target effects (Summerton, 2007, Amoyel et al., 2005, Gerety and Wilkinson, 2011). The ATM MO sequence targeted the kinase domain (Imamura and Kishi, 2005), and therefore could conceivably also target similar kinase domains in other DNA repair proteins. Secondly, injection of MOs upregulates p53-mediated apoptosis (Ekker and Larson, 2001, Pickart et al., 2006, Robu et al., 2007, Gerety and Wilkinson, 2011). Given that, ATM morphants all died by 72 hpf, without exogenous damage of DNA, and when the majority of the basal DNA damage is repaired by NHEJ, an argument could be made that the severity of the phenotype may be attributed to unchecked p53 mediated apoptosis, similar to gonads in other HR KO zebrafish models outlined above (**section 3.3.1.3**). Furthermore, as ATM is a primary regulator of apoptosis through the p53-mediated pathway, loss of ATM in this context could have compounding effects. Investigators could have attempted to ameliorate this upregulation of p53 by co-injecting zebrafish larvae with a p53 morpholino.

Finally, there is convincing evidence that the published MO induced KD ATM morphant zebrafish are not conventionally KD of ATM protein expression, but may more accurately represent kinase dead morphants. The morpholino used by Imamura and Kishi (2005) targets the exon–intron junction at the 5' side of exon 56. This causes an in frame skipping of 267 bp, corresponding to exons 56 and 57. This in frame deletion corresponds to loss of the beginning of the kinase domain. In the data presented in this chapter and seen in patients, ATM mRNA does not readily undergo NMD. Additionally, the study carried out by Imamura and Kishi (2005) does not provide any evidence of the resultant ATM protein expression, although evidence suggests that in frame exon skipping in ATM does produce a stable protein (Menotta et al., 2012, Pozzi et al., 2020, Rogatcheva et al., 2007, Menotta et al., 2017, Kralovicova et al., 2016). Therefore, the resultant protein in ATM morphants could conceivably be analogous to a kinase dead ATM. The kinase dead ATM protein has been shown to have a much more severe outcome than ablation of ATM, and in mice results in embryonic lethality (Yamamoto et al., 2012a, Daniel et al., 2012), similar to the embryonic lethality observed in zebrafish ATM morphants.

3.3.3 Future Work in the General Characterisation of the ATM^{sh477/sh477} Model

3.3.3.1 Further Characterising the DDR in ATM Deficient Zebrafish

DNA damage repair is a dynamic process and employs different pathways depending on the cell type and the point of the cell cycle during which repair is required (Hakem, 2008). H₂AX phosphorylation acts as a marker of DNA damage, but does not indicate which pathway is responsible for the repair. In the results presented above, H₂AX phosphorylation was quantified 1 hr post irradiation - a single time point. As activation of the DDR was shown to occur in ATM^{-/-} cells but at a slower pace (Schlam-Babayov et al., 2020), it would be important to conduct a time course experiment to determine if the rate of repair, and therefore decreased signalling of γH₂AX, changes over time between wild type and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. To complement this, a comet assay where extracted DNA migration through an agarose gel is monitored, and the amount of lagging DNA which represent ssDNA is quantified as a measure for unrepaired DNA damage, could be performed at the corresponding time points to quantify actual DNA damage (Martins and Costa, 2020).

As outlined above (**section 3.3.2.1**), quantification of activation of γ H₂AX only denotes DNA damage repair in general, and may be a marker for multiple repair mechanisms. Most ds DNA damage is repaired through the quicker NHEJ repair pathway, which will also present with γ H₂AX foci, while only a subset is repaired through the more laborious HR pathway (Jeggo et al., 2011, Liu et al., 2012a). This will largely depend on what stage during the cell cycle the repair takes place. As ATM primarily functions in the DDR as a coordinator of HR, investigating the repair of DNA through this pathway should be considered. Protocols have been developed for measuring HR in zebrafish through immunofluorescence quantification of Rad 51 foci (Vierstraete et al., 2017) – an essential protein for HR in zebrafish that functions downstream of the ATM/BRCA2 pathway (Liu et al., 2012a). Furthermore, it may be useful to compare what type of DNA repair is occurring in ATM^{+/+} versus ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish, and whether the loss of ATM affects this in any way. A protocol for discerning between HR, NHEJ and single-strand annealing (SSA) pathways in zebrafish larvae using fluorescent reporter zebrafish has been developed (Liu et al., 2012a).

3.3.3.2 Investigating Compensation in the Model

The apparent lack of radiosensitivity and deficiency inactivating the DDR in ATM^{sh477/sh477} may be due to protein-level compensation and redundancies in the DDR. Therefore, it would be interesting to understand the nature of the predicted compensation in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. The increased radiosensitivity exhibited by the MO KD model may be in part due to the presence of a kinase dead ATM protein, however, as confronted in this project, quantification of ATM protein levels in zebrafish is difficult. Consequently, it cannot be confirmed whether the ATM morphants have ATM protein expression. Furthermore, off target effects such as p53 activation compounding the phenotype cannot be ruled out. Therefore, there may be merits in creating a CRISPR knock in, kinase dead zebrafish mutant. An ATM kinase dead zebrafish may have many advantages in investigating the effects of complete disruption to ATM signalling compared to the kinase dead mouse model, since zebrafish KOs of essential genes are often viable for the first few days of embryonic development. Furthermore, while stable kinase-dead homozygous mutants will most likely also succumb to embryonic lethality, heterozygous mutants would be predicted to exhibit the same dominant negative effect seen in cells (Scott et al., 2002,

Yamamoto et al., 2012a, Yamamoto et al., 2016). This may prove to be a valuable *in vivo* resource in chemotherapeutic development for cancers with *de novo* somatic ATM mutations. Exploratory data could be gathered into the merits of modelling loss of kinase activity with the use of ATM inhibitors. Some preliminary data and discussion on this will be presented in **chapter 5**.

In order to further scrutinise whether there is protein-level compensation in the model, it would be interesting to study the relative contribution of ATR and DNA-PKcs. Attempts have been made to transiently decrease ATR expression in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish using CRISPRi (data not shown). However, no decrease in ATR mRNA was achieved, most likely because CRISPR methods activate the DDR (Haapaniemi et al., 2018, Ihry et al., 2018, Enache et al., 2020), which could have overridden the steric silencing of a DNA damage gene. Therefore, the transient ablation of ATR or DNA-PKcs expression through genetic means may not be ideal in this context. However, investigation into the contribution of compensation could be achieved using ATR and DNA-PKcs inhibitors in conjunction with ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish.

Chapter 4

ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Exhibit Infertility and Testicular Neoplasms

4.1 Introduction

One of the hallmarks of classical AT is infertility (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.4.6**). This phenotype is also recapitulated in rodent and porcine models (**see chapter 1, 1.3**), indicating that the function of ATM is highly conserved in gamete formation. During prophase I of meiosis, controlled SPO11 mediated ds breaks are introduced into developing gametes to facilitate an exchange of genetic information between sister chromatids in homologs recombination, and ATM is required for the repair of these ds breaks and for gamete formation to progress (Cooper et al., 2014, Brick et al., 2020). In vertebrate AT models, gamete formation is stalled in prophase I of meiosis at the point where these breaks should be repaired (**see table 4.1 below**), resulting in the infertility observed (Barlow et al., 1996, Quek et al., 2017a). As reported in **chapter 3**, all ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish develop as male. Therefore, investigations of infertility and gametogenesis of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish reported in this chapter will only discuss fertility in relation to spermatogenesis.

Spermatogenesis in zebrafish occurs similarly to how it does in mammals and the key steps in this process are outlined in **figure 1.4**. , Spermatogenesis begins with a large progenitor stem cell called undifferentiated Spermatogonia A cells. These stem cells divide by mitosis and differentiate into Spermatogonia A cells which further divide into Spermatogonia B cells. These then further divide into primary spermatocytes which further divide by meiosis where homologous recombination takes places resulting in haploid secondary spermatocytes. Secondary spermatocytes then quickly develop into spermatids, and finally undergo morphologically changes where they mature into spermatozoa. (Schulz et al., 2010b, Leal et al., 2009, Xie et al., 2020). From the point of late spermatogonia B cells, each successive division increases the number of cells but decrease the size of the cells. Furthermore, as the sperm develops the nucleus undergoes progressive chromosomal condensation, further decreasing the size and changing the morphology

of the cells. These changes such as the number of cells, the nuclear size and the nuclear morphology and colour (under H&E and Putt's carbol fuchsin staining) can be used to identify the cells type and stage of development (van der Van and Wester).

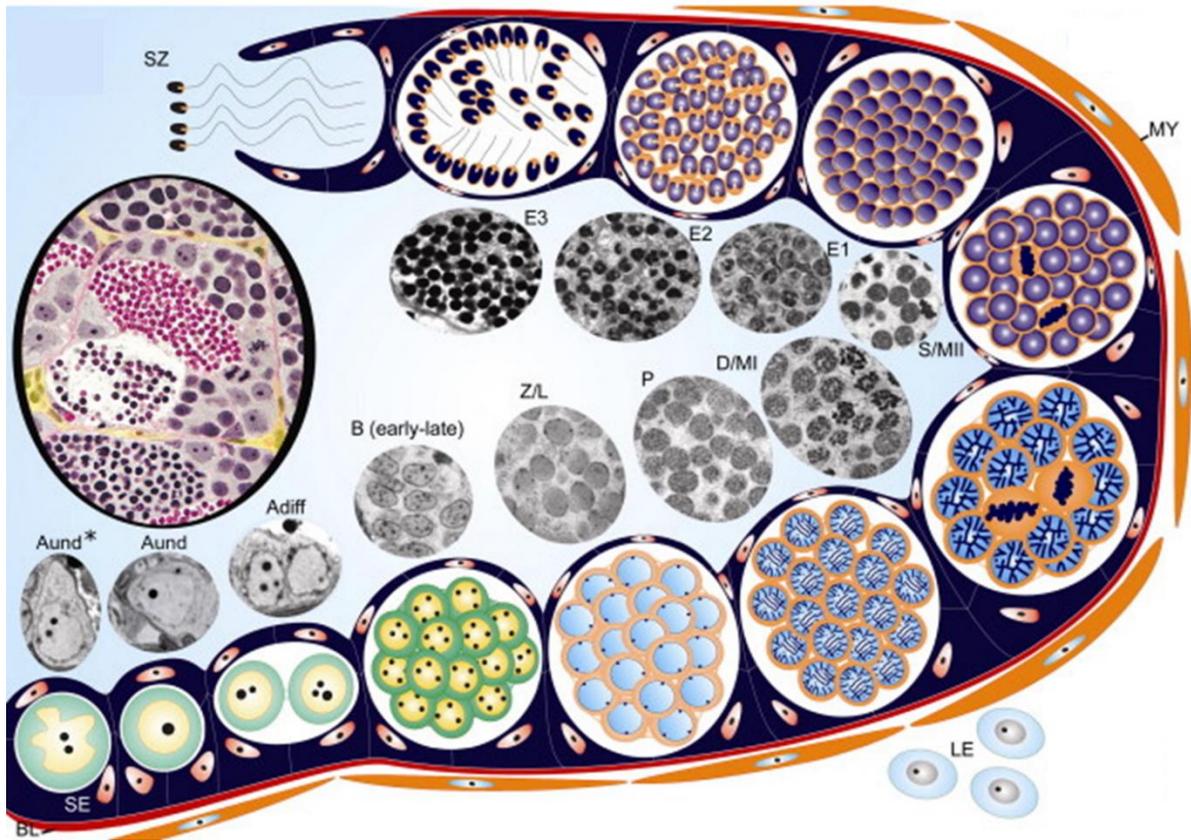


Figure 4.1 Zebrafish Spermatogenesis. The germinal epithelium delineated by a basal lamina (BL) and peritubular myoid cells (MY), From the point of late spermatogonia B cells, each successive division increases the number of cells but decrease the size of the cells. Furthermore, as the sperm develops the nucleus undergoes progressive chromosomal condensation, further decreasing the size and changing the morphology of the cells. These changes such as the number of cells, the nuclear size and the nuclear morphology (and colour under H&E staining can be used to identify the cells type and stage of development). Outside the cystic epithelium are the interstitial Leydig cells (LE). Type A undifferentiated* spermatogonia (Aund*) which are the progenitor stem cell; type A undifferentiated spermatogonia (Aund); type A differentiated spermatogonia (Adiff); spermatogonia type B [B (early-late)]; leptotenic/zygotenic primary spermatocytes (L/Z); pachytenic primary spermatocytes (P); diplotenic spermatocytes/metaphase I (D/MI); secondary spermatocytes/metaphase II (S/MII); early (E1), intermediate (E2) and final spermatids (E3); spermatozoa (SZ). Figure reproduced with permissions (Schulz et al., 2010b).

4.2 Results

4.2.1 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish do not Produce Progeny

To determine if $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit the same infertility as other AT models, male $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish were pair mated with wild type female fish that had previously produced robust clutches of embryos. Each experimental fish was paired once. Three hours after pairing, we recorded whether the wild type female laid any eggs, and after a further 3 hours, determined the number of fertilised and unfertilised eggs within the clutch. Mutant ATM zebrafish failed to induce egg laying in females in 92% of pair matings (**figure 4.2 a**). On the one occasion where an $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ fish did induce egg laying in the female, there were no fertilised embryos (**figure 4.2 b**). This indicates that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish recapitulate the infertility seen in other models of AT. The nature of the infertility will be detailed further in **sections 4.2.2.2 and 4.2.2.3** below.

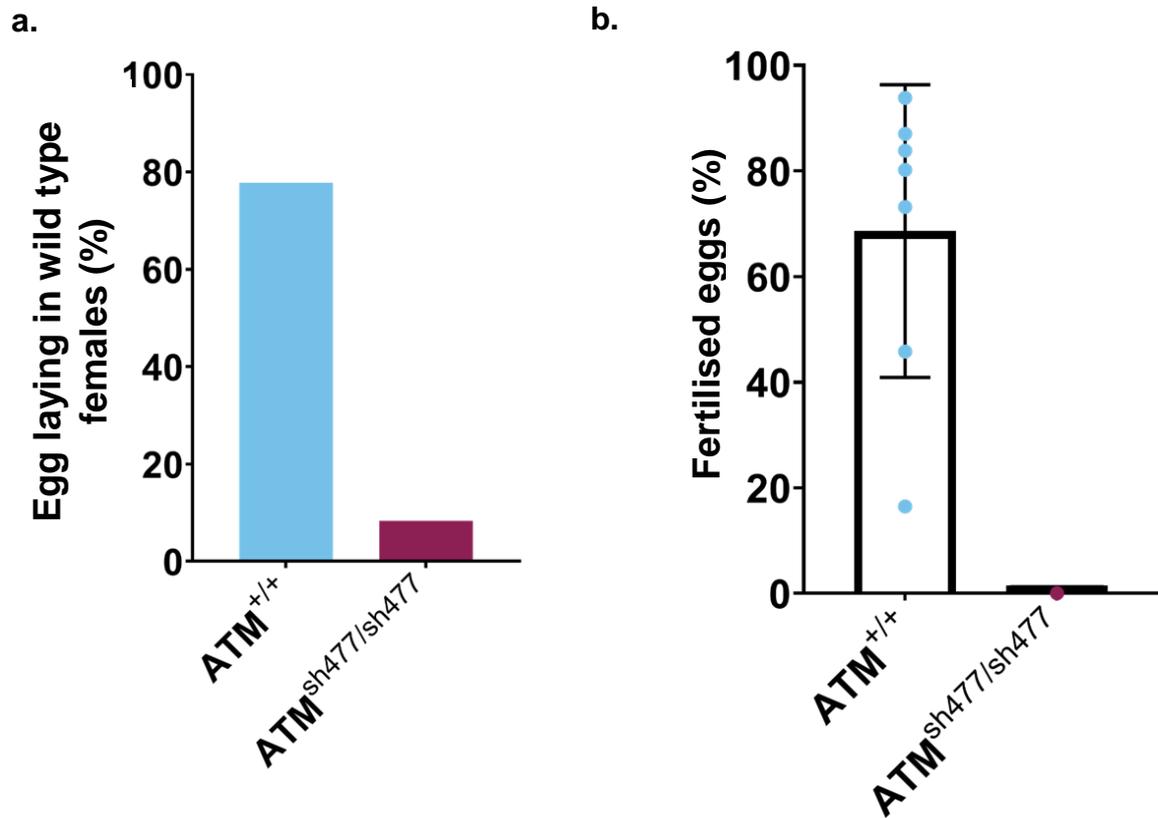


Figure 4.2 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish are infertile. Male $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ siblings were outcrossed by pair mating to wild type female zebrafish that had previously produced robust embryos. **a.** the percentage of outcrosses that resulted in egg laying by the wild type females. **b.** the percentage of fertilised eggs produced from individual crosses when egg laying was induced. Each data point represents a single pair mating. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Note only one $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ outcross resulted in egg laying in the females. From those eggs, none were fertilised. $ATM^{+/+}$ n=9, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ n=12, data represents pairings carried out on 3 separate days.

4.2.2 Investigations into $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Testes

4.2.2.1 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish have Neoplastic Testes

It was observed over the course of the project that all $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibited progressive swelling and distention of the abdomen (**figure 4.3 a**). Under close inspection during development, this unusual abdominal morphology could first be detected at around 7 months, became obvious by 9 months, and became a humane end point by 18 months, as abdomens became so large that tearing of the skin could be observed around the anal fin. Upon dissection, the abdominal morphology was found to be the result of a multilobular, soft, cream coloured mass within the caudal abdominal cavity (**figure 4.3 b**). Histological examination from one fish determined this mass to be testicular tissue (data not shown). Therefore, the testes of $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish were further investigated to understand the nature of the growth.

Groups of four $ATM^{+/+}$, $ATM^{+/sh477}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ male siblings were sacrificed at 12 months of age, and prepared for formalin fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE) tissue sectioning of the abdominal cavity. Tissue sections were then stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for visualisation of the testicular structures. Testes in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish were consistently larger than in their control siblings. The testicular mass fills most of the abdominal cavity, with one testis displacing the other so they sit on top of each other (as opposed to being parallel to each other) (**figure 4.4 a**). As can be seen from **figure 4.4 b**, wild type and heterozygous zebrafish testes have an organised structural architecture that has been lost in mutant zebrafish. The irregularities in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ structure appear to be from neoplastic growth of polygonal cells with variably distinct cell borders, and contain a small to moderate amount of eosinophilic cytoplasm. The nuclei of these cells are variable in size and these cells form clusters of sheets that are interspersed with different cell populations (**figure 4.4 c**). In consultation with two pathologists, Dr Clare Muir (Department of Infection, Immunity & Cardiovascular Disease) and Dr Jonathan Griffin (Department of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology), these neoplastic cells were identified as Sertoli cells.

Sertoli cells form part of the testicular epithelium and function as support cells for developing sperm (França et al., 2016, França et al., 2015). The disruption caused by Sertoli cell neoplasia to the organisation of $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes is characterised in more detail in **figure 4.5**. In control testes, an epithelial barrier (**A**) surrounds each

cystic tubule (**yellow dotted line**), and progression of spermatogenesis takes place within the cystic lumen (**B**). Spermatogenic support cells, Leydig cells (**C**) and Sertoli cells (**D**) are found on the periphery of the cyst by the epithelial barrier (Xie et al., 2020). Spermatogenesis begins with large, solitary, immortal primary germ cells called spermatogonia A (**E**), which give rise to clusters of 4-16 spermatogonia B cells (**F**). These cells further divide into spermatocytes (**G**) which form spermatocysts (**red dotted line**). The spermatocyst is formed by cytoplasmic extensions of Sertoli cells, and supports expansion of the developing germ cells (Schulz et al., 2015). Cells in spermatocysts further develop into spermatids (**H**), which progress into mature sperm through spermiogenesis (**I**). In $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, the neoplastic Sertoli cells make up most of the testicular mass, and other cells types are difficult to discern. The relative contribution of Sertoli cells and Leydig cells to the cellular makeup of the testes between $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish are quantified in **figure 4.6**. $ATM^{+/+}$ testes had an average of 4.3 +/- 2.8 Sertoli cells per mm^2 , while $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes had an average of 31.84 +/- 17.3 Sertoli cells per mm^2 , resulting in a ~7 fold increase in Sertoli cells in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes. There was no significant difference in Leydig cell numbers between the two genotypes. The neoplastic Sertoli cells appear to be benign, as their growth was restricted to the testes and no infiltration to surrounding organs was observed (data not shown).

a. **ATM^{+/+}**



ATM^{sh477/sh477}



b.

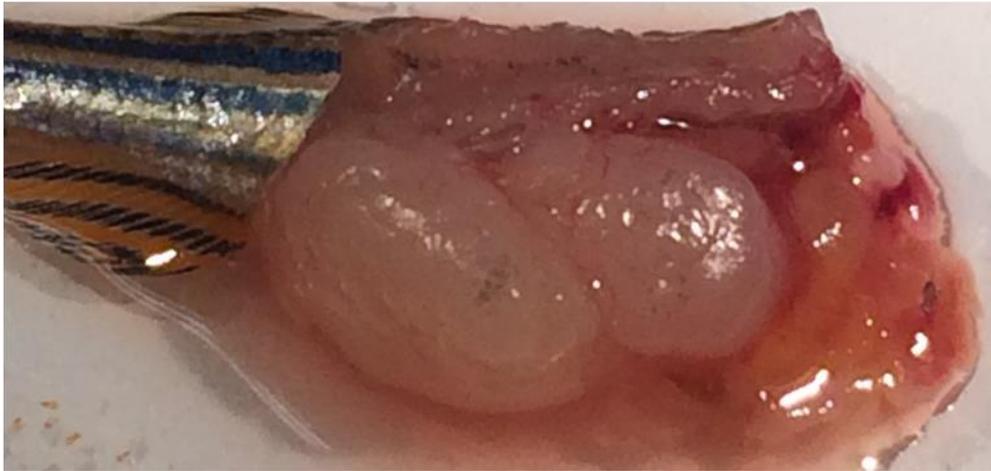


Figure 4.3 ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish exhibit abnormal gross abdominal morphology. a. ATM^{sh477/sh477} vs ATM^{+/+} male zebrafish (15 months). **b.** Abdominal dissection of ATM^{sh477/sh477} (TDP null) zebrafish (18 months).

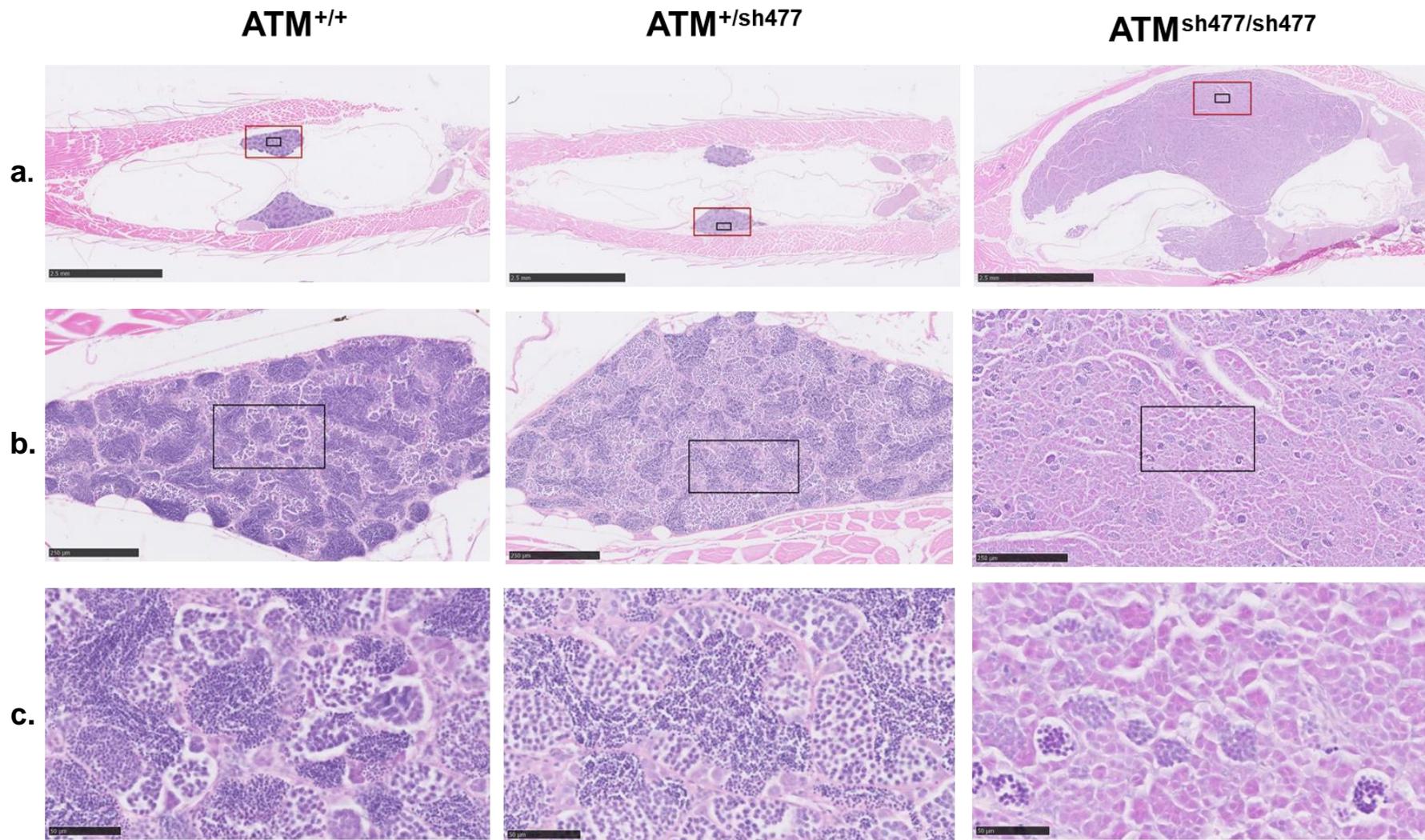
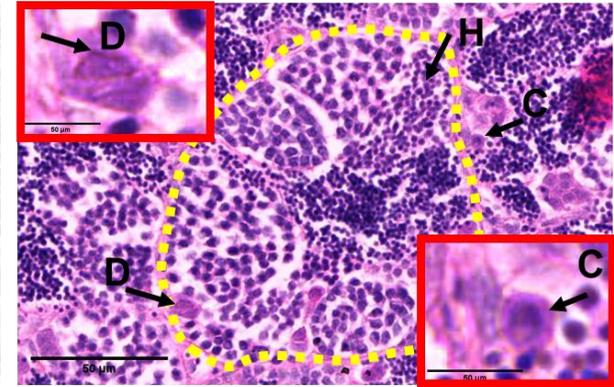
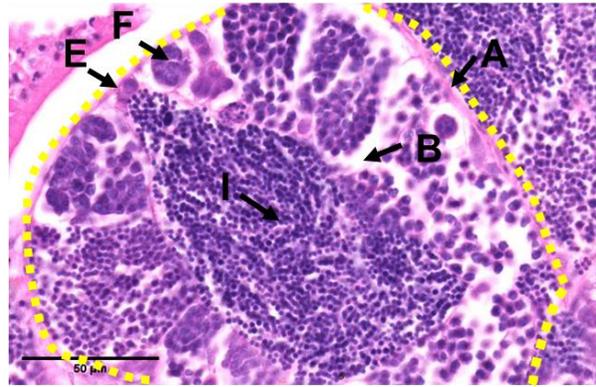
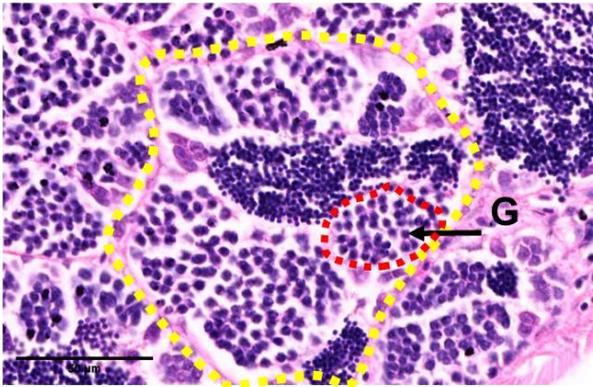


Figure 4.4 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish testes at 12 months old exhibit neoplastic Sertoli cell growth. H&E stained horizontal sections (5 μ m) of $ATM^{+/+}$ (left panel), $ATM^{+/sh477}$ (middle panel) and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ (right panel) testes. **a**, **b** and **c** are magnified images of the same testis where **a**. scale bar represents 2.5 mm. **b**. scale bar represents 250 μ m. **c**. scale bar represents 50 μ m.

ATM^{+/+}



ATM^{sh477/sh477}

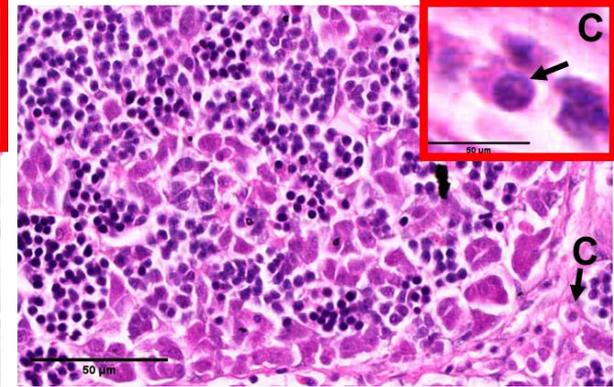
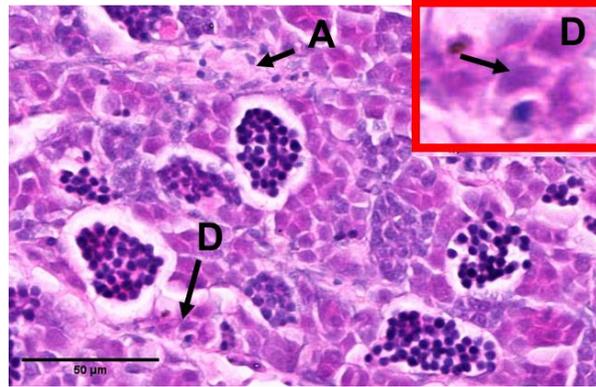
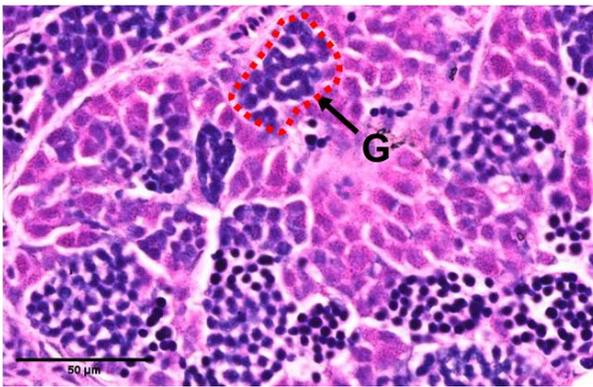


Figure 4.5 Neoplastic Sertoli cell growth disrupts the organisational structure of ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes. Cystic organisational structure of 3 ATM^{+/+} and 3 ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish at 3 months. Cyst boundary (yellow dotted line) comprised of interstitial connective tissue (A), cystic luminal space (B), Leydig cells (C), Sertoli cells (D), spermatogonia A (E), spermatogonia B cells (F), spermatocytes (G), spermatocysts (red dotted line), spermatids (H), and mature sperm (I). Scale bars represent 50 μm

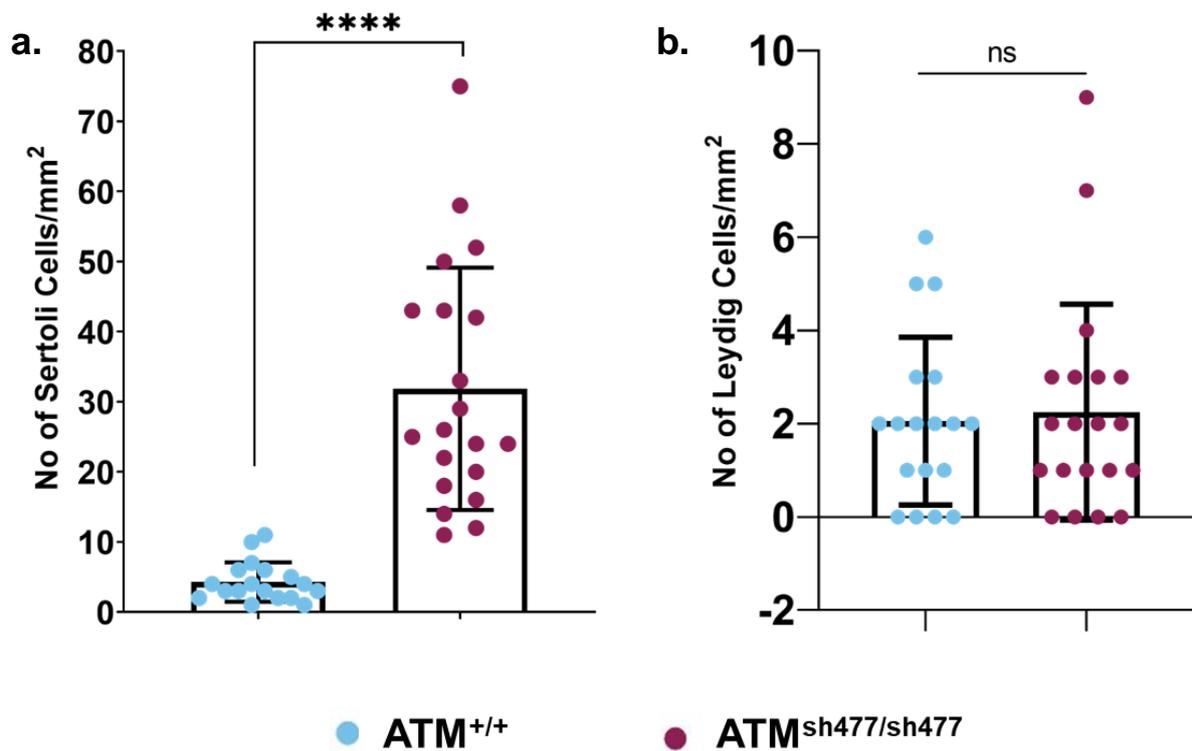


Figure 4.6 Contribution of Sertoli and Leydig cells to the makeup of 12 month old ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes. a. Sertoli cell contribution to testicular makeup. Data were analysed by an unpaired t test with Welch's correction (<0.0001). **b.** Leydig cell contribution to testicular makeup. Data were analysed by a Mann Whitney test ($p=0.9485$). Each data point represents the number of named cells in a field of view with an area of 1.1 mm², with 5 randomly selected fields of view analysed for each fish. ATM^{+/+}n=4 fish, and ATM^{sh477/sh477}n=4 fish. Error bars represent mean +/- the SD. Statistical analysis can be seen in **appendix 4.1**.

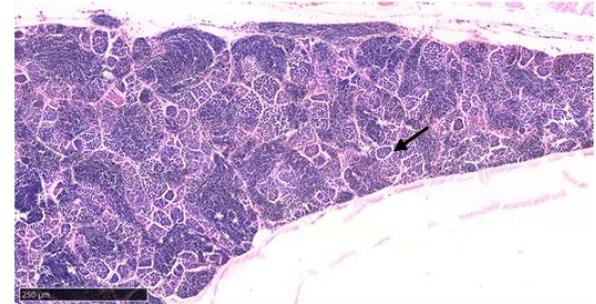
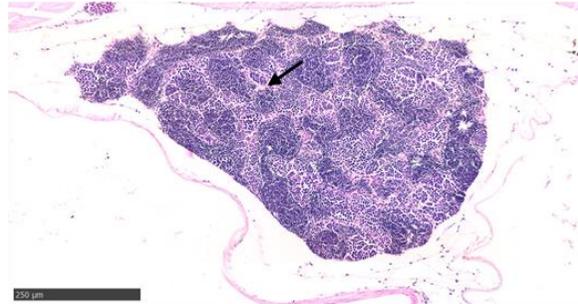
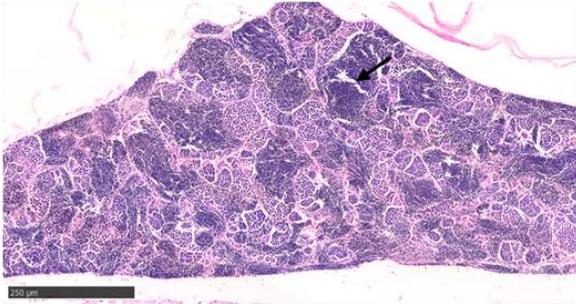
4.2.2.2 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish do not Develop Mature Spermatozoa

To understand the nature of the infertility exhibited by ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish in **figure 4.2** we further investigated the testes. However, due to the overwhelming growth of the Sertoli cells, identification of spermatogenic and other support cells was cumbersome in 12-month testes. Therefore, for ease of analysis we chose to investigate development of primary germ cells to mature sperm in testes from 3-month-old zebrafish. As they do not show any gross abdominal swelling, we postulated that there would not yet be overwhelming Sertoli cell growth, and the testicular architecture and cellular makeup of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish would be more easily discernible.

Low power images of the testes (**figure 4.7**) confirm that at 3 months of age the structural architecture has been slightly disrupted; however, it has not yet completely obscured the testicular organisation. As outlined above in **figure 4.5**, zebrafish spermatogenesis occurs in cysts, and the maturational direction of developing sperm occurs from the periphery towards the centre, with mature sperm filling the central anastomosing luminal space. However, low power images of ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes show the central seminiferous lumen to be largely empty (**figure 4.7, arrows**).

Medium power images of testes (**figure 4.8 a**) show in detail how the cysts in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish have become disorganised, and how it is difficult to distinguish groups of cells at different stages of spermatogenesis from each other. In ATM^{+/+} testes, the central luminal spaces are filled with hyperchromatic haematoxylin stained cells, that are consistently circular in shape, with no discernible cytoplasm. These are mature sperm that have been released into the anastomotic lumen once spermatogenesis has been completed (spermiation). ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes do not appear to undergo spermiation, as no mature spermatozoa are observed. However, there are cells similar in appearance to spermatozoa that are small and hyperchromatic, but these are generally clumped together as is seen in developing spermatocytes as they progress through spermatogenesis. Thus, it appears that the reason why ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish are infertile is because they do not produce mature spermatozoa due to incomplete spermatogenesis.

ATM^{+/+}



ATM^{sh477/sh477}

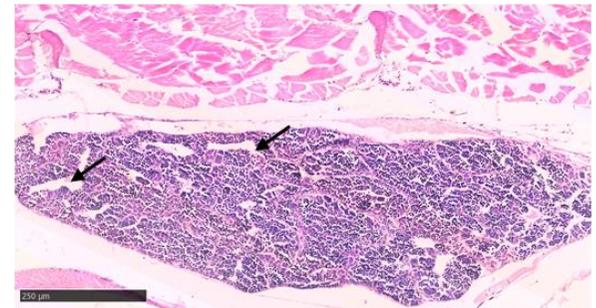
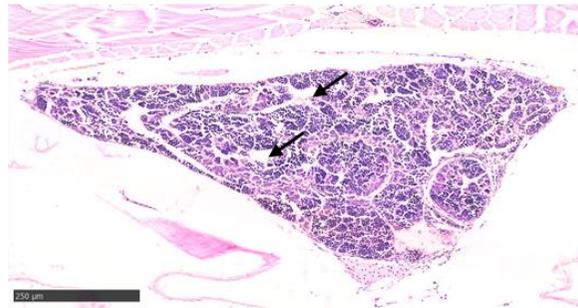
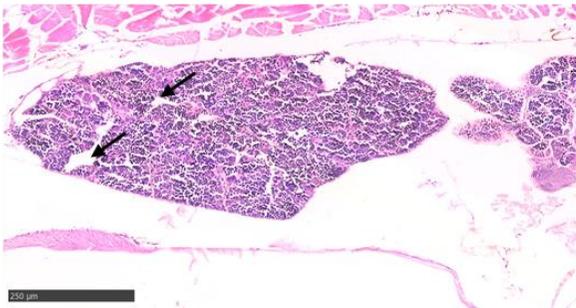
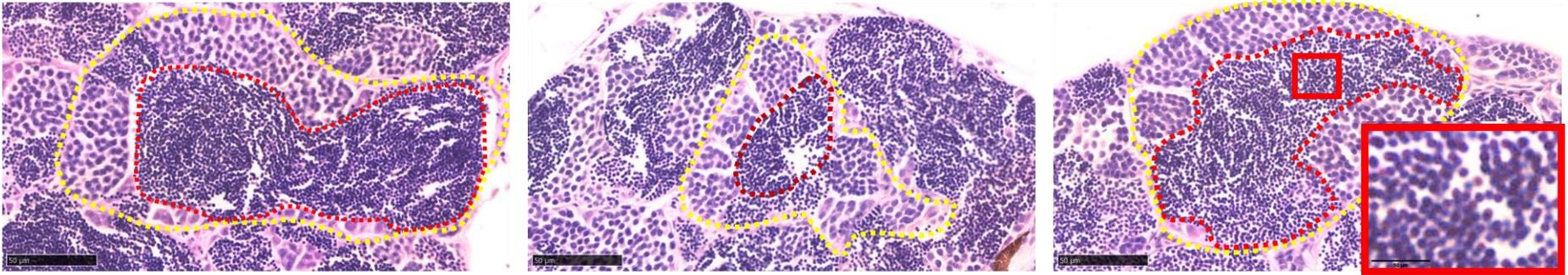


Figure 4.7 ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes exhibit large empty seminiferous tubule lumens. Low power image of ATM^{+/+} (top panel) and ATM^{sh477/sh477} (bottom panel) testes at 3 months. Arrowheads denote empty seminiferous tubules. Scale bar represent 250 μm.

ATM^{+/+}



ATM^{sh477/sh477}

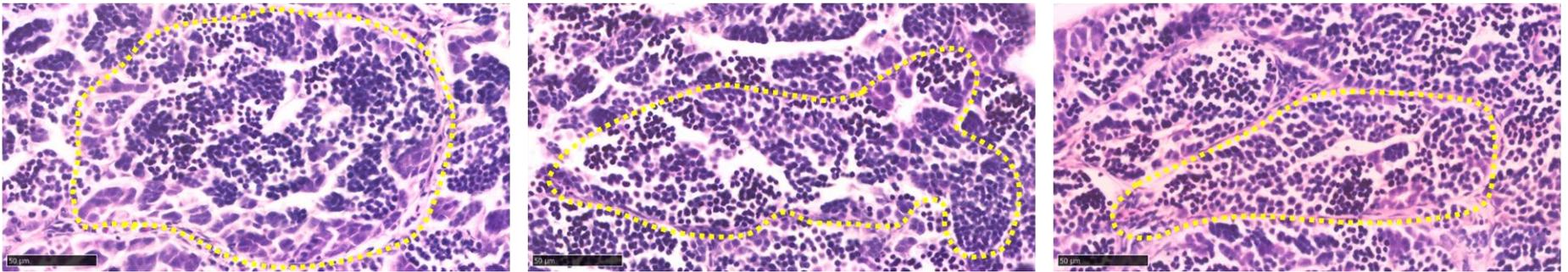


Figure 4.8 ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish testes do not contain mature sperm. a. Medium power images of testes from 3 ATM^{+/+} (top panel) and 3 ATM^{sh477/sh477} (bottom panel) zebrafish at 3 months. The dashed yellow line indicates the cyst boundary and the dashed red line indicates mature spermatozoa in the luminal space. Red inset shows magnified red box containing mature spermatozoa. Scale bars represent 50 μ m.

4.2.2.3 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Exhibit Stalled Spermatogenesis

Infertility in other animal models of AT stems from failure to repair the dsDNA breaks created during meiotic recombination. As shown in the above section, ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish appear to have stalled spermatogenesis, and we hypothesise that this failure of spermatogenic development to progress beyond a certain stage could also be related to a meiotic defect. Therefore, we compared spermatogenesis between ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish with regards to cell type and the expected stage of meiosis.

Figure 4.9 compares H&E images of the different stages of spermatogenic development. As cells develop through spermatogenesis they become progressively smaller, with an increasingly small and more compact nucleus. Therefore, measurement of the cell size relative to other developing cells can help determine their stage of development. To quantify the size of different cell types, the area of the nucleus was measured (**figure 4.10**). Automated analysis of cell area was attempted, however due to the large number of overlapping cells in the sections it was not possible to differentiate between individual cells (**appendix 4.2, left panel**). Therefore, the area of different cell types was measured manually, by drawing around the perimeter of the hyperchromatic haematoxylin stained region of the cell (**see appendix 4.2, right panel**). Spermatogenesis begins with a primary immortal germ cell called spermatogonia A (**figure 4.9 a**). The nucleus of these cells do not stain well with haematoxylin and only lightly with eosin, and as such, these cells appear hypochromatic. They are found as a large single cell at the periphery of the cyst and are mitotically active. Spermatogonia A cells were present in both ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes. Mitotic division of these cells gives rise to early spermatogonia B (**figure 4.9 b**). These cells are morphologically identical to spermatogonia A, are mitotically active, and are found in clusters of 2-4 cells. Again, these cells were observed in both genotypes. Through further mitotic divisions, early spermatogonia B cells develop into late spermatogonia B cells (**figure 4.9 c**). These cells are found in clusters of 4-16 cells, are highly mitotically active, and are present in both mutant and ATM^{+/+} testes. Spermatogonia B cells further develop into spermatocytes (**figure 4.9 d**), and these cells are found grouped together in clusters called spermatocysts (**figure 4.9 d, dotted line**). Spermatocytes are the point in spermatogenesis in which meiosis occurs. Different stages of spermatocyte development can sometimes be determined morphologically. However, differences in morphology can be difficult to

characterise without visualisation of chromosomes, and therefore, only early stage primary spermatocytes were characterised in **figure 4.10**. Clusters of primary spermatocytes were found in both $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ and $ATM^{+/+}$ testes and were of comparable size ($p > 0.9999$). Primary spermatocytes undergo the first stage of meiosis and in Prophase I when cells are tetraploid, homologous recombination occurs. After the first meiotic division, cells develop into secondary spermatocytes and undergo the second meiotic division to create haploid cells. The second mitotic division is quick and as such, secondary spermatocytes are rarely seen in histological sections of testes, and on analysis of $ATM^{+/+}$ testes no cells that could be considered secondary spermatocytes were observed. In normal spermatogenesis in $ATM^{+/+}$ testes, spermatocytes divide into haploid spermatids (**figure 4.9 e**), and then further develop into mature spermatozoa (**figure 4.9 f**). However, in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes, no spermatids or spermatozoa were observed.

The most fully developed spermatid cells observed in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes were hyperchromatic with condensed nuclei, similar to mature spermatozoa, but were localised in small groups similar to spermatocytes and had not been released into the lumen (**figure 4.9 g**). Furthermore, when the area of these cells was compared to other developing spermatogenic cells (**figure 4.10**), they were 1.8 times smaller than $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ primary spermatocytes ($p < 0.0001$), and 1.9 and 3.6 times larger than $ATM^{+/+}$ spermatids ($p = 0.0004$) and mature spermatozoa ($p < 0.0001$), respectively in $ATM^{+/+}$ testes. Therefore, these ambiguous cells present in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes had an intermediate size between that of primary spermatocytes and spermatids. This indicates that they are at a point of development between these two cell types. However, as no secondary spermatocytes were found in $ATM^{+/+}$ testes for comparison, and as it is difficult to stage primary spermatocyte development without visualisation of the chromosomes, it was not known if these cells are primary spermatocytes that are in the late stages of the first meiotic division, or if they are secondary spermatocytes. Therefore, here we have designated them late spermatocytes, as their exact point in development between primary spermatocyte and spermatid is not known. Thus, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ spermatogenesis is stalled and does not progress beyond the stage of meiosis.

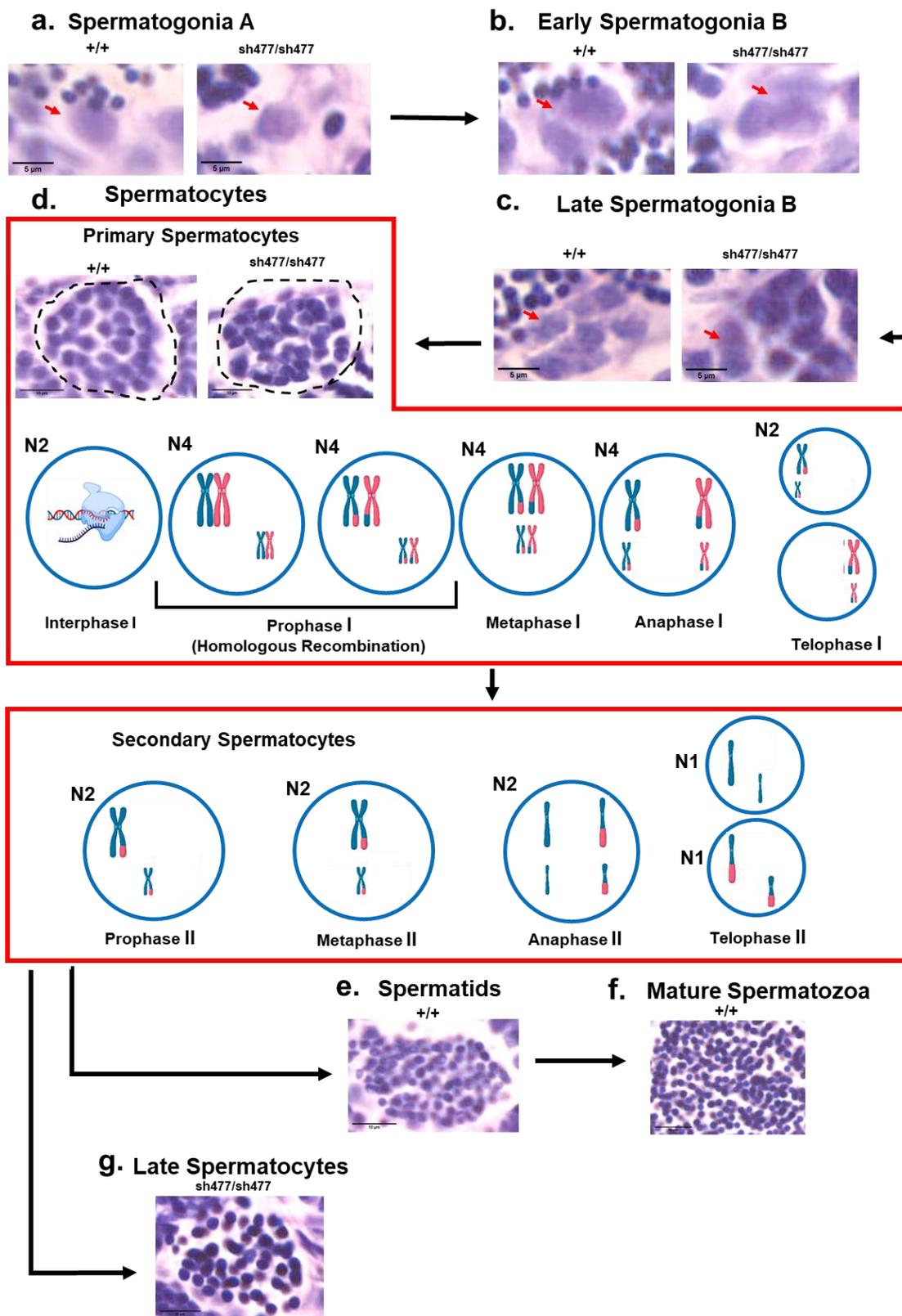


Figure 4.9 Histological comparison of spermatogenesis between $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish at 3 months. a. H&E images indicating cell stage and morphology as primary germ cells progress through spermatogenesis. a. Spermatogonia A, scale bar represents 5 μ m. b. Early spermatogonia B, scale bar represents 5 μ m. c. Late spermatogonia B cells, scale bar represents 5 μ m. d. Spermatocytes, scale bar represents 10 μ m. e. Spermatids, scale bar represents 10 μ m. f. Mature spermatozoa, scale bar represents 10 μ m. g. Presumptive late spermatocytes, scale bar represents 10 μ m. Identification of cell types and stages of spermatogenesis was aided by histological sections of testes on [ZFIN](#) (van der Van and Wester).

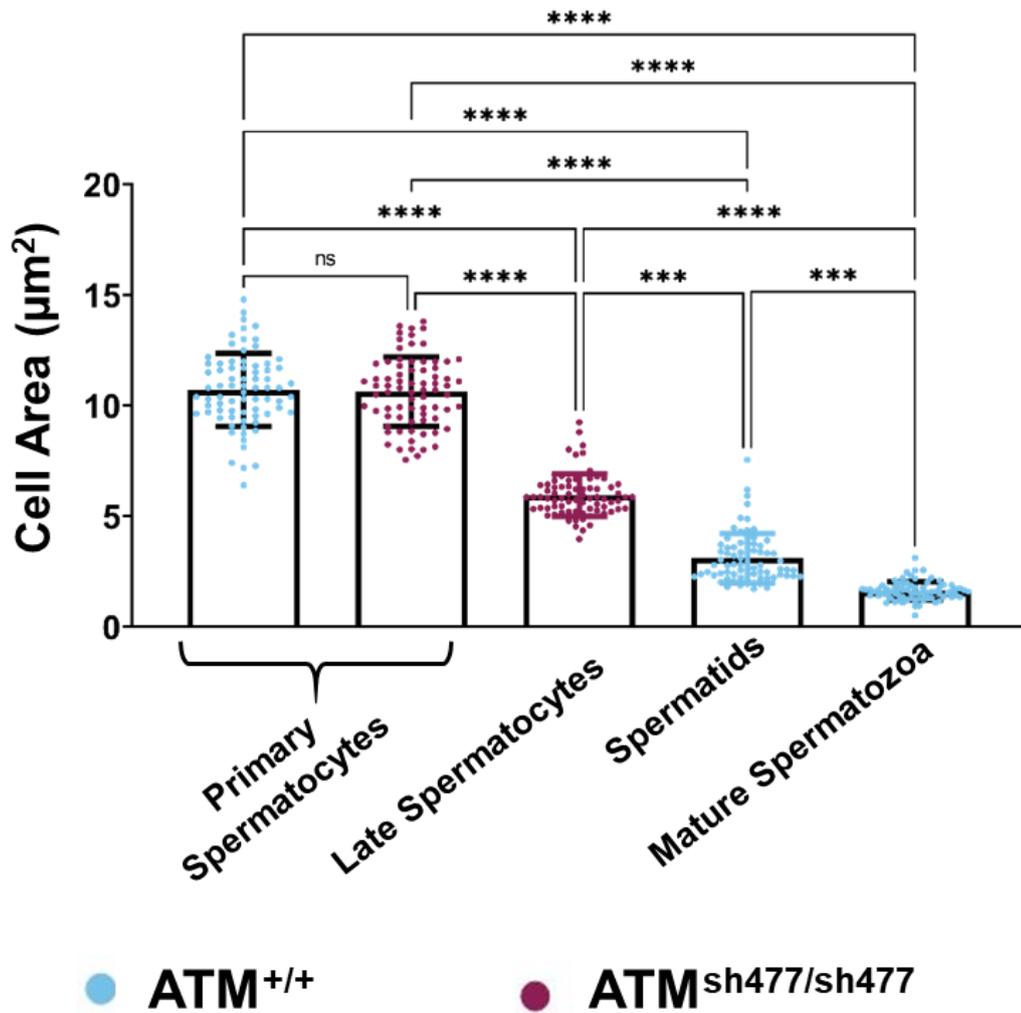


Figure 4.10 Comparison of spermatogenic cell size in $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes as a means of define cell type. The area of haematoxylin stained nucleus in cells in each of the developmental stages of spermatogenesis. Each data point represents the area of an individual cell (µm²). Serological analysis was performed by measuring the haematoxylin stained area of 5 cells within a spermatocyst or seminiferous lumen, with 5 different spermatocysts or seminiferous lumens being analysed per fish. Data were analysed by Kruskal-Wallis test, with a *post hoc* Dunn's multiple comparisons test. $ATM^{+/+}$ N=3 fish, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ N=3 fish. Error bars represent mean +/- SD. Statistical Analysis can be seen in **appendix 4.3**.

4.2.2.4 The ATM Protein is Highly Expressed in Most Cell Types in the Zebrafish Testes

ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes appear to have two distinct phenotypes, Sertoli cell hyperplasia and incomplete spermatogenesis. The reasons why loss of ATM in the testes causes dysregulated Sertoli cell growth, and the point at which spermatogenesis fails, were not known. To understand these two issues further we wanted to determine which cell types express ATM. Therefore, immunohistochemistry (IHC) for ATM was carried out on FFPE testes sections. The antibody used for IHC was the zATM1 antibody that is outlined in detail in **chapter 3 section 3.2.1.2**. In short, this antibody is a zebrafish specific polyclonal antibody, raised against amino acids 1-120 of the zebrafish ATM protein, upstream of the predicted premature stop codon introduced by the *sh477* mutation. Therefore, it should be noted that it might be capable of detecting both full-length ATM and a truncated ATM protein, if it exists in the mutant zebrafish.

a. Optimisation of the zATM1 Antibody for Immunohistochemistry

The zATM1 antibody required optimisation for IHC. As the makeup the testicular tissue was so different between ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish, optimisations were carried out on both genotypes. Optimisation was performed for antigen retrieval of the antibody epitope and for antibody concentration (Shi et al., 2011).

Antigen retrieval was performed on FFPE slides of ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish testes by heating the slides in buffer at either pH 6 or pH 9 to 125° C, at 300 psi, for 30 seconds in a pressure cooker. Slides were then stained with a Vectastain Elite ABC-HRP kit as per the protocol with either zATM1 (1:100), Rabbit immunoglobulin (RIgG), or no primary antibody. Antibody staining was then visualised by 3, 3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) (**figure 4.11**). Antibody staining was observed in both ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish testes after antigen retrieval at both pH 6 and pH 9, but not in RIgG or no primary antibody samples. As a signal was detected in both ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish, it suggests that either the staining is nonspecific, or a truncated mutant transcript may be expressed in the ATM mutants. However, the expression of a truncated protein in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish is consistent with results observed from western blot analysis of zebrafish lysates in **chapter 3, section 3.2.1.2**. After antigen retrieval at pH 9, there appears to be much stronger detection of ATM throughout the sample, particularly in the basal membrane of the

testicular cysts (**figure 4.11, ATM^{+/+}, right panel**) in comparison to the ATM^{+/+} sample where antigen retrieval was performed at pH 6. Furthermore, staining at pH 9 appeared homogenous for all cell types in ATM^{+/+} (with the exception of mature spermatozoa), which made distinguishing different cell types from each other more difficult. Interestingly, primary spermatocytes in ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} exhibit differential ATM expression after antigen retrieval at pH 9, with ATM^{+/+} primary spermatocytes showing homogenous expression with other spermatogenic cells in the tissue and ATM^{sh477/sh477} primary spermatocytes showing no ATM expression at all. Therefore, given that ATM was expressed in both genotypes but showed discrepancies between expression with pH 9 antigen retrieval, and the difficulty in discerning cell types with the higher pH, antigen retrieval was continued with pH 6.

ATM IHC on zebrafish testes was further optimised for antibody concentration. Following antigen retrieval at pH 6 as previously discussed, ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} FFPE tissue sections were probed with the zATM1 antibody at concentrations of 1:100, 1:200, 1:400, 1:800 and 1:1600, alongside a no primary antibody control (**figure 4.12**). ATM expression was visualised with DAB as before. Staining of the tissue with zATM1 at a concentration of 1:400 appeared to give adequate signal, and therefore was chosen for continuing work.

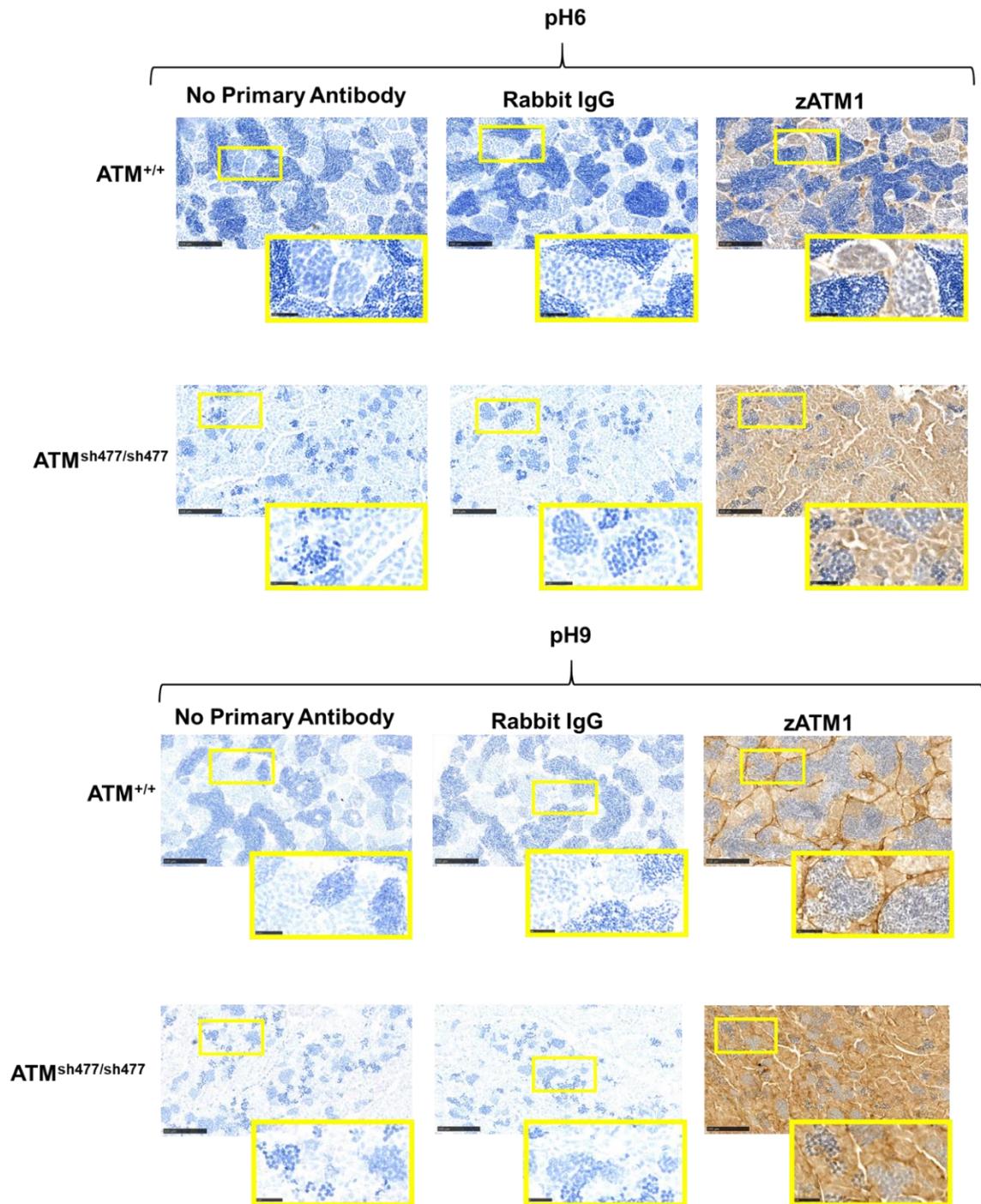


Figure 4.11 Optimisation of antigen retrieval for zATM1 IHC. FFPE sections of testes 5 μm of 12 month ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} were optimised for antigen retrieval at pH6 and pH9 by incubating them in the relevant buffer in a pressure at 125° C, at 300 psi for 30 seconds. The slides were then probed with zATM1 at 1:100 or RIgG and a no antibody control. Scale bars on larger images represents 100 μm , yellow box indicates the magnified region shown in the yellow outset, while scale bars on yellow outsets represent 25 μm .

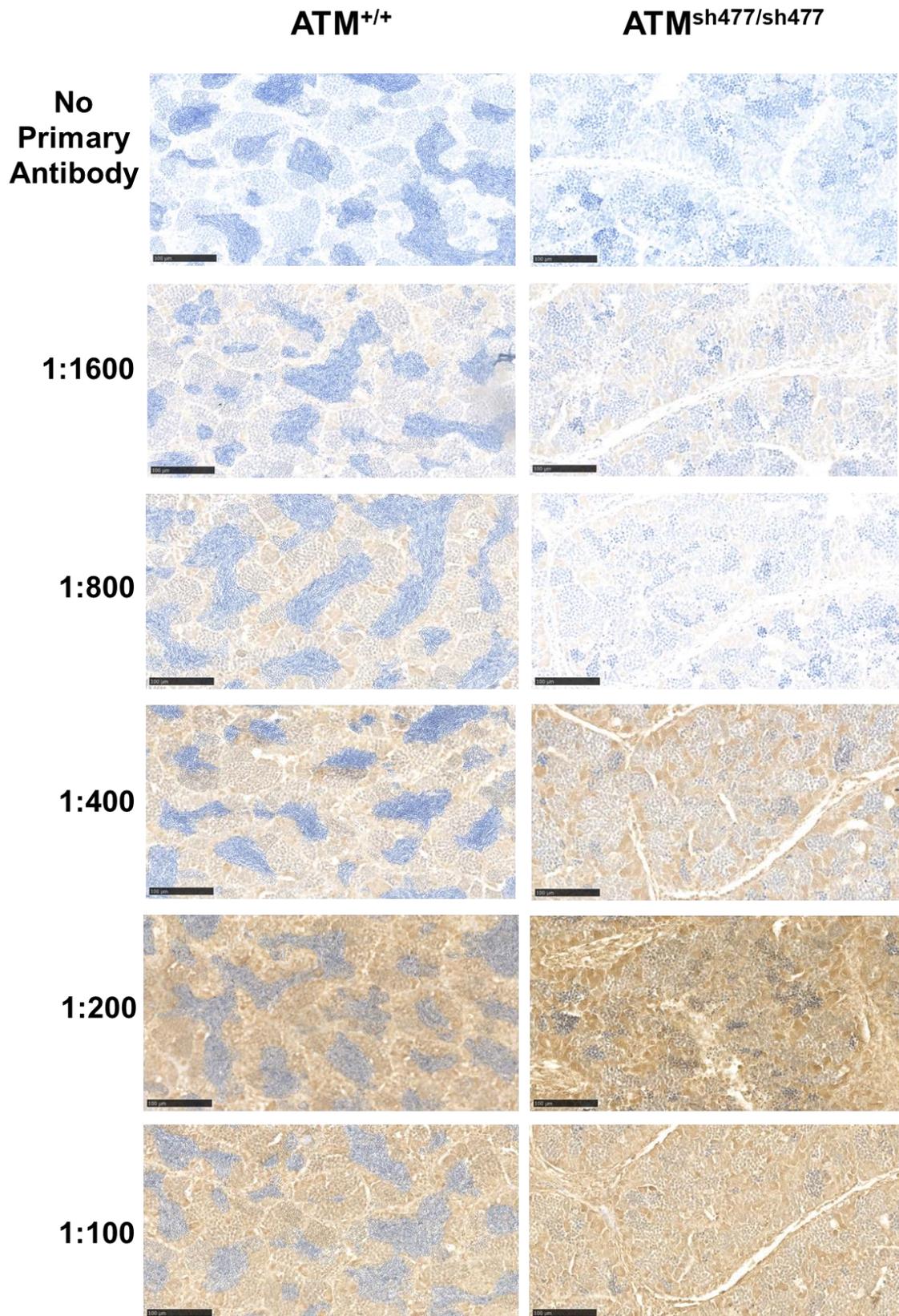


Figure 4.12 Optimisation of zATM1 for IHC on zebrafish FFPE testes sections. Zebrafish FFPE sections (5 μ m) were prepared for antibody staining by antigen retrieval at pH 6, as optimised in figure 4.9. Antibody was diluted to 1:100, 1:200, 1:400, 1:800 and 1:1600 with a no primary antibody control. Scale bars represent 100 μ m.

b. Immunohistochemistry of ATM in ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh47/sh477} Testes

Testes from both ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish exhibit strong ATM staining throughout the testicular tissue (**figure 4.13**), and most cell types in testes showed distinct ATM staining. Spermatogonium A and spermatogonium B cells (**figure 4.14 a, b and c**) in both genotypes exhibited robust ATM staining in both the nucleus and cytoplasm. The nuclear envelope had particularly dense staining, along with heavily stained spots in the nucleus. ATM staining in primary spermatocytes (**figure 4.14 d**) becomes less pronounced, and is mainly localised to the nucleus, where it appears granular, perhaps indicating its localisation at specific points along chromosomes. In ATM^{+/+} testes, ATM is expressed in developing germ cells right up until the spermatid stage of development, where it appears to be localised to heavily stained areas within the nucleus (**figure 4.14 f**). Once cells have developed into mature spermatozoa, ATM expression appears to have been lost (**figure 4.14 g**). Interestingly in ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes, presumptive late spermatocytes (**figure 4.14 e**), which are predicted to be at a stage of development between primary spermatocytes and spermatids, have lost their ATM expression. This may indicate that ATM is not required for this stage of development, or that these cells do not actually represent a stage of spermatogenic development, and that their condensed morphology and lack of ATM may be due to them dying and being cleared. ATM was also expressed diffusely throughout Sertoli cells (**figure 4.14 h**), and in Leydig cell cytoplasm (**figure 4.14 i**) in both genotypes.

ATM^{+/+}

ATM^{sh477/sh477}

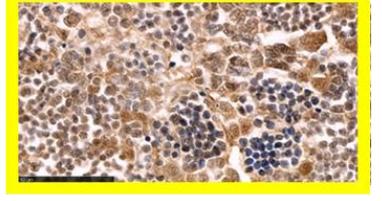
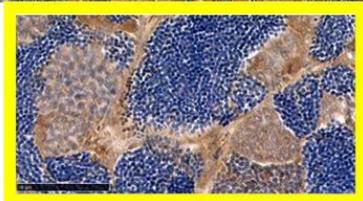
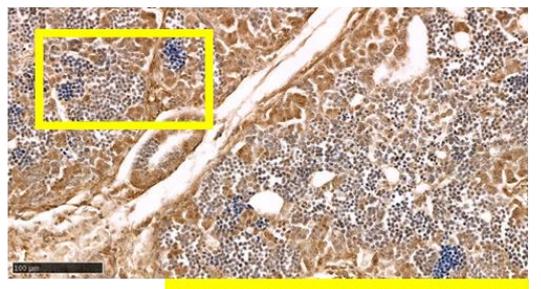
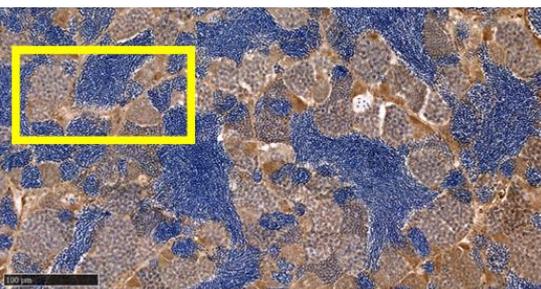
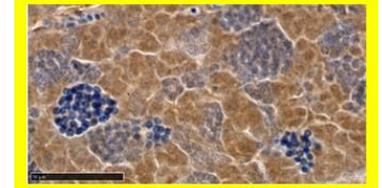
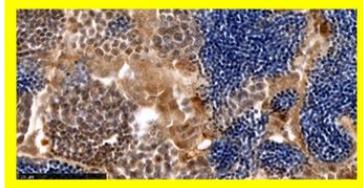
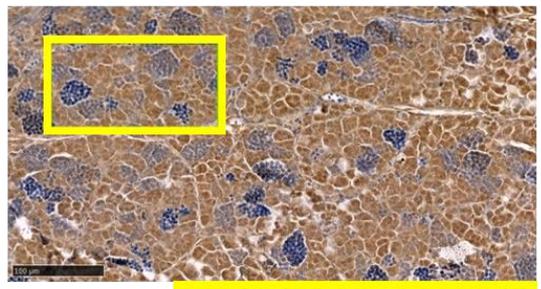
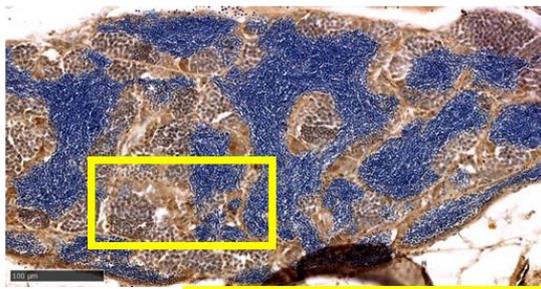
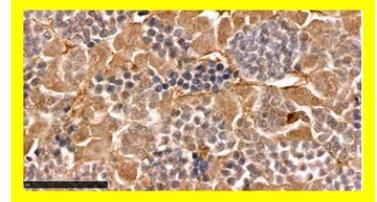
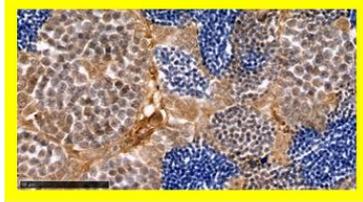
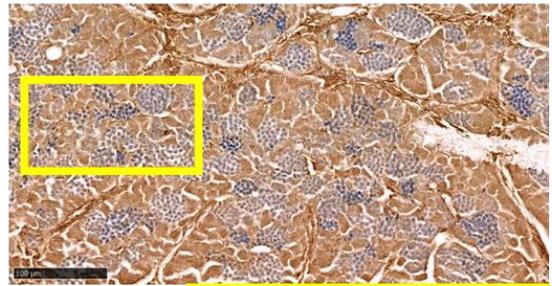
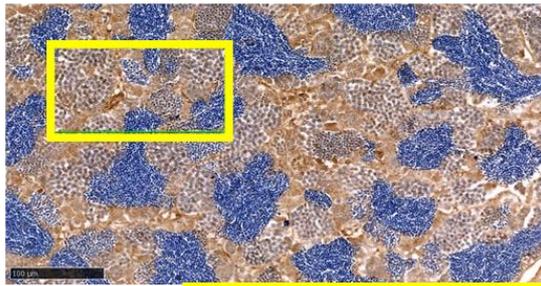


Figure 4.13 Immunohistochemistry staining with the zATM1 antibody on ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes. FFPE tissue sections (5 μ m) from 12-month zebrafish were stained with the zATM1 antibody overnight at 4° C at a concentration of 1:400. Antibody staining was visualised by DAB. ATM^{+/+} (left panel) N=3 fish, ATM^{sh477/sh477} (right panel) N=3 fish. Scale bars represent 100 μ m. Yellow box indicates the magnified region shown in the yellow insets. Scale bars represent 50 μ m.

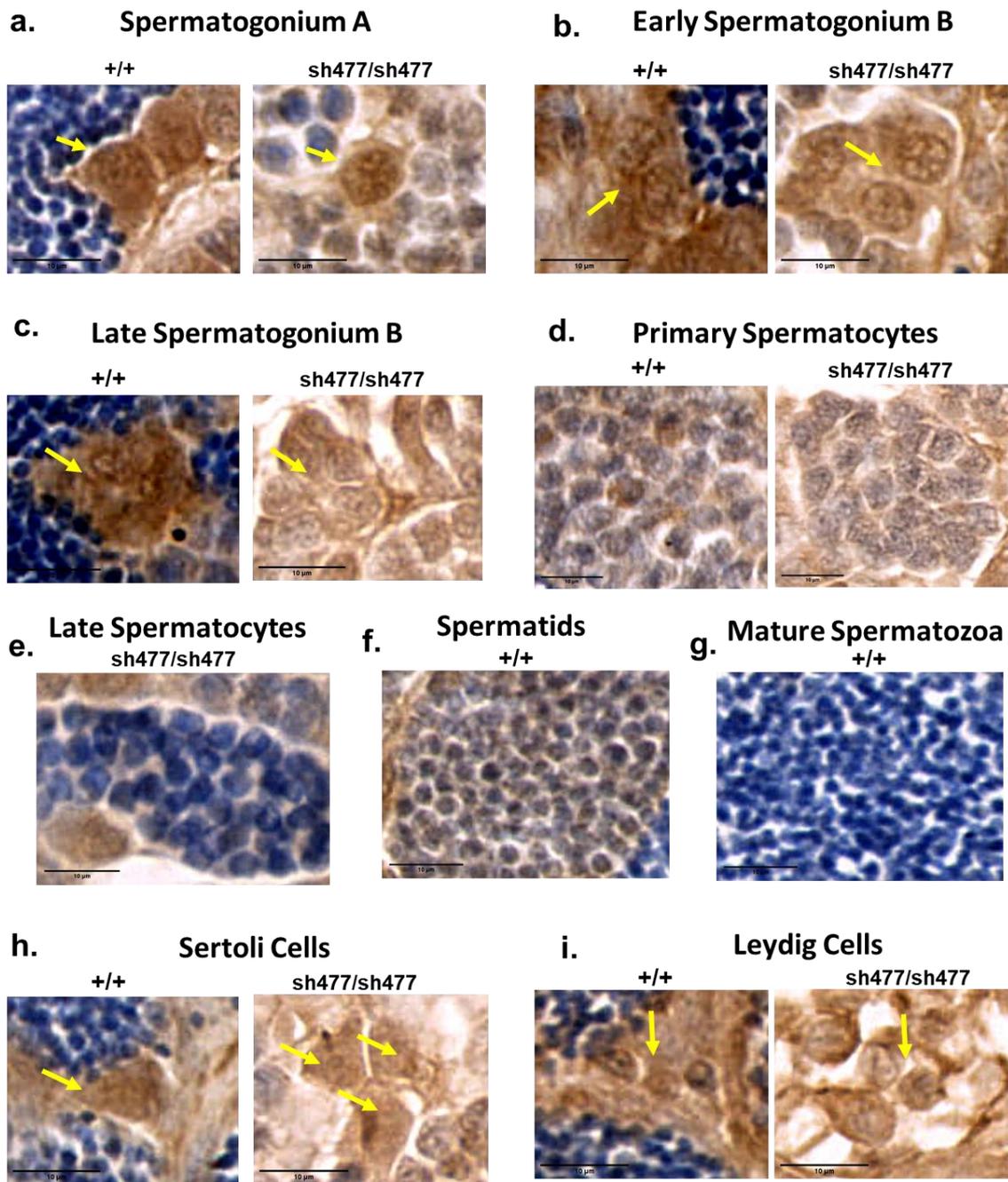


Figure 4.14 Cell specific staining of ATM. Magnified images of specific cells from figure 4.11 above **a.** Spermatogonium A **b.** Early spermatogonium B **c.** Late spermatogonium B **d.** Primary spermatocytes **e.** ATM^{sh477/sh477} late spermatocytes **f.** ATM^{+/+} spermatids **g.** ATM^{+/+} mature spermatozoa. **h.** Sertoli Cells. **i.** Leydig cells. Scale bar in all images represents 10 μm.

4.3 Discussion

The results presented in this chapter indicate that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish undergo incomplete spermatogenesis similar to AT patients and other vertebrate models of AT. This incomplete spermatogenesis is also observed in other zebrafish that are deficient in HR proteins. Interestingly, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish also exhibit Sertoli cell neoplasia in the testes, which has not been reported in other AT models, nor have there been any case reports of this occurring in AT patients. This has however been previously reported in *brca2* deficient zebrafish.

4.3.1 Loss of ATM Recapitulates Phenotypes Observed in Other Zebrafish KO Models of DNA damage Repair Genes

4.3.1.1 Loss of HR Genes in Zebrafish Results in Incomplete Spermatogenesis due to Failure to Complete Meiosis

Results presented in this chapter show that spermatogenesis in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish is stalled. Given the relative size of the most developed spermatogenic cells in ATM mutants compared to other developing spermatogenic cells in both mutants and wild type testes (**figure 4.9 and 4.10**), this suggests that spermatid development in these fish may halt as they are undergoing meiosis. Meiosis is an evolutionary conserved mechanism of cell division in sexually reproducing species that produces haploid gametes from diploid cells. A key element of meiosis is homologous recombination, which occurs when genetic information is swapped between homologous chromatids. This swapping of genetic information facilitates genetic variation between progeny. HR takes place in prophase I of meiosis, which is the longest phase in meiosis and can take days to weeks in mammals (Cohen et al., 2006). Prophase I can be subsequently be split into five sub stages. The sub stages, along with known functions of ATM during each of the sub stages, are presented in detail in **table 4.1**.

Table 4.1 Stages of Prophase I

Prophase I stages	Functional Events	Cytological Appearance
Leptotene Stage (leptonema)	<p>Diffuse tetraploid chromatin condenses and homologue pairing starts. The synaptonemal complex (a large multi-protein complex) begins to assemble along the homologous pairs and by the end of the leptotene stage it forms a backbone along each chromosome around which the chromatids are tightly condensed.</p> <p>Spo11 forms excessive ds breaks in specific DNA 'hot spots', which is regulated by ATM locally at the site of the damage in a negative feedback mechanism which is not yet wholly understood. ATM also directs repair of most of these SPO11 mediated breaks by activating the DDR, particularly RAD51 and DMC1, before allowing the cell to enter the next stage of prophase I, where generally only ds breaks for one crossover event per chromosomal tetrad remains. In addition to activating the DDR locally at the point of ds DNA breaks, the presences of ATM at these sites is thought to confer some type of steric hindrance to stop too many breaks occurring close together.</p> <p>Chromosomes become tethered to the nuclear membrane through their telomeres, a process which is mediated by ATM. This tethering of the chromosomes to the nuclear matrix allows movement of the chromosome ends through the cytoskeleton, to aid in homologues pairing, and later separating of homologous chromosomes and sister chromatids during cell division. The capping of telomeres by ATM also prevents end to end joining of chromatids.</p> <p>ATM prevents cell cycle progression mediated by p53 and p21 activation if too many ds breaks persist.</p>	The condensed chromatin forms thread like structures.
Zygotene Stage	Homologous chromosomes continue to align and are tethered together by the synaptonemal complex (synapsis). This tethering proceeds in a zipper like fashion so that at the end of the Zygotene stage homologous chromosomes are synapsed along their entire length down to matching base pairs.	Chromosomes form a bouquet where the centrosome of the chromosome is in the middle of the cell and the chromosome ends spread out along the nuclear envelope. Gives the impression of petals fanning out from the central part of the flower. This progresses to an umbrella conformation where the central part of the chromosome moves to a nuclear pole.
Pachytene Stage	Crossover of homologous chromatids occurs, after which all dsDNA breaks are repaired.	Chromatin continues to condense so the nucleus becomes highly compacted.
Diplotene Stage	The chromatids condense further and the synaptonemal complex beings to disintegrate, with homologous chromosomes beginning to repel each other. However, they are still held together at the points of recombination by chiasmata to keep the chromosome together until Anaphase I.	Chromosomes condense further
Diakinesis Stage	Loss of the nuclear membrane and formation of meiotic spindles.	Chromosomes again condense further and the tetraploid stands and points of cross over may be visible.

(Cohen et al., 2006, Cohen and Pollard, 2001, Bolcun-Filas and Handel, 2018, Keeney et al., 2014)

Three definitive prophase I mutant zebrafish models, *its*, *imo* and *isa*, which were identified from an ENU mutagenesis screen, have been characterised and demonstrate stalled spermatogenic development in prophase I of meiosis. The *its* mutant, which was later determined to be caused by mutation to the *sycp2* gene, whose protein product comprises an integral part of the synaptonemal complex, fails to progress into leptotema, while spermatogenesis in the *imo* and *isa* mutants fail to progress beyond the zygotene stage (Saito et al., 2011, Takemoto et al., 2020). These mutants exhibit histological similarities to the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutant where spermatogonia and primary spermatocytes are visible but they do not contain spermatids or mature spermatozoa (Saito et al., 2011). The most advanced developmental stage of spermatogenic development in these mutants are cells smaller than primary spermatocytes with small condensed nuclei, similar to what is observed here in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes. While these mutants are not HR mutants, they do serve to further indicated the morphology of zebrafish spermatogenic development that has stalled at prophase I.

However, a number of other zebrafish with mutations in DDR genes, particularly HR genes, have been characterised, and their testicular phenotypes are strikingly similar to the *its*, *imo* and *isa* mutants, and to $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish described here. The best described of these HR mutants are *Rad51* and *brca2* KO zebrafish (Botthof et al., 2017, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010). These two proteins function in the same signalling pathway downstream of ATM to repair SPO11 mediated ds breaks during HR. In this pathway, ATM, acting locally at the site of dsDNA breaks, recruits BRCA2 through PALB2 to the 3' ss overhang of the ds break. Activated BRCA2 stabilises Rad51 monomers, and shuttles them to the point of the 3' overhang reviewed (Sun et al., 2020, Woo et al., 2021). Both *Rad51* and *brca2* KO mutants exhibit almost identical defects in spermatogenic development to $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutants, where their luminal space is devoid of mature spermatozoa and there are no spermatids present. Furthermore, they both exhibit clusters of primary spermatocytes in spermatocysts comparable to $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish and most critically, the most developed spermatogenic cells exhibited by these fish are small round hyperchromatic cells with condensed nuclei that are indistinguishable from the

cells we have termed late spermatocytes in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes (Botthof et al., 2017, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010). Investigations of these hyperchromatic cells in the *brca2* mutants have shown them to be pyknotic cells undergoing apoptosis by caspase 3 and TUNEL staining (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010). As ATM, Rad51 and BRCA2 activation are all sequential steps in the same functional pathway, it is likely that these condensed hyperchromatic cells in Rad51 and ATM mutants are also pyknotic cells undergoing apoptosis, and do not represent any typical morphology of cells undergoing normal spermatogenesis. The similarly hyperchromatic and condensed cells in the *its* and *isa* prophase I mutants were also caspase 3 and TUNEL positive (Saito et al., 2011).

We have not experimentally investigated the exact point in meiosis in which spermatogenesis fails in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. However, the similarities between prophase I mutant testes and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes strongly indicate that spermatogenic failure in these is likely to be in prophase I. Furthermore, given the near identical spermatogenic histology between ATM, *brca2* and Rad51 mutant testes, and that their shared functional pathway occurs primarily during the leptotene stage of prophase I (**table 4.1**), it is likely that anomalies in the mutant testes occur at this stage. However, *brca2*^{-/-} spermatogenesis was shown to continue past leptotene and fail at the pachytene stages of prophase I (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). Therefore, while the aberrations may occur at leptotene, halting of the cell cycle and mitigation of the potential damage may not occur until the pachytene checkpoint, which is a critical checkpoint that appraises proper homolog-synapsis and dsDNA repair, and is primarily mediated by ATR (Cooper et al., 2014). However, further characterisation of spermatogenesis in these mutants is required to confirm this.

4.3.1.2 Disruption of Sertoli Cell Homeostatic Proliferation is a Feature of Loss of HR Genes in Zebrafish

Sertoli cells are nurse cells present in the testes that provide structural, nutrient and molecular support for developing spermatogenic cells. Here we describe a progressive and aggressive Sertoli cell neoplasia in ATM deficient testes

(section 4.2.2.1). It is not clear if these Sertoli cell proliferations are because of the failed spermatogenesis, or if it is the result of an entirely different and unrelated somatic cell pathology. Testicular organisation and Sertoli cell proliferation and regulation is quite different in teleosts compared to mammals. In mammals, Sertoli cells proliferate until the onset of puberty, where there is then a defined number of post mitotic Sertoli cells resident in the testes that will regulate spermatogenesis for life (França et al., 2016). However, in zebrafish, Sertoli cells remain mitotically active throughout the lifespan, and an individual Sertoli cell is transient rather than resident. Two pathways mediate Sertoli cell proliferation in fish. The first is the proliferation and differentiation of a new Sertoli cell from a Sertoli progenitor. The new Sertoli cell's cytoplasmic projections surround an undifferentiated spermatogonium A cell to create a new spermatocyst or niche for the developing sperm cells. The differentiation of an undifferentiated spermatogonium A cell to a mitotically active one, and the differentiation of a new Sertoli cell niche, occur together.

The second means of Sertoli cell proliferation is in conjunction with the developing spermatocyst, in which new Sertoli cells arise from the mitotic division of Sertoli cells already in place to meet the needs of the expanding niche. The number of Sertoli cells associated with a specific cyst steadily increases from spermatogonium cells up until pachytene stage in primary spermatocytes (França et al., 2016, Schulz et al., 2015, França et al., 2015, Schulz et al., 2005). The germ cell niche comprises developing spermatogenic cells and somatic Sertoli cells. The developing gametes rely on Sertoli cells for nutrients and to secrete signals that regulate spermatogenesis, and similarly Sertoli cell homeostasis relies on signals from the developing germ cells as they only reach terminal differentiation and become post mitotic once meiosis has taken place (Leal et al., 2009, Schulz et al., 2015, Schulz et al., 2005). After meiosis and once spermiogenesis commences, the number of Sertoli cells associated with a specific cyst decreases, until finally the spermatocyst opens to allow mature spermatozoa into the luminal space (França et al., 2015, Leal et al., 2009, Schulz et al., 2005).

A similar neoplasia to that we describe in ATM mutants was also reported in *brca2* mutant zebrafish (Shive et al., 2010, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). Neoplasia in *brca2*^{-/-} testes were found to be comprised of Sertoli cells and

proliferating spermatogonia. While we have determined the neoplasia in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish to be primarily comprised of Sertoli cells, it may be possible that spermatogonia cells also contribute, but were not readily discernible in the overgrown testicular tissue at 12 months. Work to investigate this further is outlined below in **section 4.3.4.2**. Investigations of the testes of Rad51 mutants were carried out at 4 months and no testicular neoplasia was reported (Botthof et al., 2017). However, this may have been too early to detect neoplasia, as we failed to observe increased Sertoli cells at 3 months in ATM mutant zebrafish. The paper describing the effects of Rad51 KO in zebrafish provides only limited testicular histology, however after examination of what is reported, we tentatively believe Sertoli cell proliferation may also be present in the Rad51 model, as there appears to be growth of irregularly shaped, eosinophilic cells from the basal membrane towards the luminal space, that are not present in the wild type sample.

It is plausible that the proliferation of Sertoli cells in both $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ and $brca2^{-/-}$ zebrafish occurs as a secondary event, with the failure of spermatogenesis being the primary event. As outlined above, in fish Sertoli cells proliferate within the developing cyst and only become post mitotic after meiosis has occurred in the spermatogenic cells (Schulz et al., 2015, Schulz et al., 2005, Leal et al., 2009). As primary spermatocytes in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ and $Brca2^{-/-}$ zebrafish do not complete meiosis, Sertoli cell proliferation may continue unchecked. *Dead end (dnd)* is a gene which is essential for primordial germ cell development in mice and zebrafish. Ablation of *dnd* expression by injection of a *dnd* morpholino at the embryonic stage produces sterile male adults (Slanchev et al., 2005). In common with *Brac2* and ATM mutants, *dnd* KD morphants also exhibit Sertoli cell overgrowth, indicating that it is the absence of mature spermatozoa that causes proliferation of the Sertoli cells, and that it is not a direct result of loss of ATM (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). However, the *its*, *ims* and *isa* mutants do not report any neoplasia (Zhou et al., 2018, Saito et al., 2011).

While the literature suggests that lack of mature sperm are the result of Sertoli cell proliferation seen in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes, it should be considered that it may also be directly due to loss of ATM. Evidence in support of this is that ATM is highly expressed in zebrafish Sertoli cells (**figure 4.14 h**). It is also highly

expressed in Sertoli cells of mouse and humans, along with other DNA repair proteins, and these are not expressed in other somatic cell types in the testes (Ahmed et al., 2009, Scherthan et al., 2000). As Sertoli cells in zebrafish are highly mitotic and ATM is a key regulator of mitosis, particularly at cell cycle checkpoints (Bihani and Hinds, 2011, Boohaker et al., 2016, Yang et al., 2011a), loss of ATM may cause dysregulated proliferation of these cells. However, as almost all cells in the zebrafish undergo mitosis during the embryonic stage, it is likely that if loss of ATM had an effect on the mitosis of somatic cells in zebrafish it would manifest with defects in many tissues. Furthermore, Sertoli cells in mice and humans are not mitotic. However, while ATM and other DNA repair proteins such as PARP1 and XRCC1 were expressed in mouse Sertoli cells, other proteins crucial for the repair of damaged DNA, such as Rad51 and H2AX, are not present, although, based on comet assays they are capable of DNA repair (Ahmed et al., 2009). Therefore, at present the function of ATM in Sertoli cells is unknown, as is the exact mechanism of DNA repair that occurs in the cells. Furthermore, given the differences in mouse and zebrafish Sertoli cells, the function of ATM in this cell type between these two species may be different.

4.3.2 **ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish May Express a Truncated ATM Protein but Exhibit Phenotypes that are Consistent with loss of ATM Activity**

In the previous chapter, we have shown that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish have a 5 bp deletion mutation in exon 6, which was predicted to cause a downstream premature stop codon (**chapter 3, section 3.2.1.1, figure 3.1**). We have also shown that this premature stop codon does not cause mutant ATM mRNA to undergo NMD (**chapter 3, section 3.2.1.1, figure 3.2**). Therefore, it was expected that the mutant mRNA would undergo translation to generate a truncated protein that would be misfolded and degraded, or a truncated non-functional ATM protein lacking both protein-protein binding domains and the essential kinase domain (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.2**). Attempts had been made to show that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish were knockouts for the ATM protein through western blot analysis, using a zebrafish specific ATM antibody that we had raised to the first 120 amino acids of the protein upstream of the predicted stop codon in the mutants (**chapter 3, section 3.2.1.2, figure 3.3**). The aim was

to show the absence of full-length ATM in mutant zebrafish, with expression of the protein in wild type controls. Alternatively, we may have detected the truncated protein in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish lysates (**chapter 3, section 3.2.1.2, figure 3.5 b**). Detection of full length ATM by western blot was not possible, however low molecular weight immunoreactive bands were identified.

In this chapter, we attempted to optimise IHC for detection of ATM expression, and ATM expression was detected in both ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish testes. While this is by no means definitive, it does support the generation of a truncated ATM protein in ATM mutants and is consistent with results from western blot analysis. Alternatively, the staining observed in both genotypes could be non-specific staining. However, given that there is stage specific staining in the wild type testes, where there is signal in developing spermatogenic cells up to the last known point of ATM function in primary spermatocytes, but the signal progressively decreases as spermatids develop, and is absent in mature spermatozoa, strongly indicates that the antibody is specific for ATM detection by IHC. A key difference in immunological protein detection between western blot and IHC is that the SDS-PAGE gels used in western blot analysis are denaturing to the protein. The antigen to which the antibody was raised is relatively large and is likely to have both secondary and tertiary structure in its native form (**chapter 1, section 3.2.1.2, figure 3.3**); therefore, the denaturing nature of an SDS-PAGE gel may cause the epitope to be lost. An advantage of IHC is that it does not cause denaturisation of the protein and keeps the tertiary structure of the proteins intact. Therefore, while there was probable ATM specific staining in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish testis, they are likely KO for ATM activity as they exhibit phenotypes consistent with loss of ATM, such as stalled spermatogenesis, which is recapitulated in all vertebrate AT models (**chapter 1 section 1.3**). Furthermore, they also exhibit phenotypes consistent with disrupted HR in zebrafish, such as sex reversal (**chapter 3, section 3.2.2**), stalled spermatogenesis, and testicular neoplasms (Mamrak et al., 2017, Ramanagoudr-Bhojappa et al., 2018, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Botthof et al., 2017, Liu et al., 2003).

4.3.3 ATM is an Essential Component of Meiosis and Loss of ATM Causes Infertility in Animal Models of AT

Infertility due to failed gametogenesis is a feature of AT and is recapitulated in rodent models of AT (**see chapter 1 section 1.3**). It is not known exactly at what point spermatogenesis is stalled in the rat model of AT, as in-depth analysis was not performed. Still, they report similar findings to those presented in this chapter, that ATM-deficient testes have developing germ cells up to spermatocytes, but exhibit no spermatids or mature spermatozoa (Quek et al., 2017a, Quek et al., 2017b).

Spermatogenesis defects in ATM deficient mice have been well characterised. ATM is highly expressed in mouse testes. Its expression is largely localised to Sertoli cells in agreement with the expression observed in zebrafish Sertoli cells. In mice, granular expression of ATM was also found in primary spermatocytes and localised to early spermatids, but not late spermatids or mature spermatozoa, again supporting what was observed in ATM staining of zebrafish testes (**figure 4.13 and 4.14**) (Scherthan et al., 2000).

In mouse models of AT, spermatogenesis is stalled at leptoneuma with only a few spermatocytes (2%) progressing as far as the zygotene stage. These stalled spermatocytes showed reduced expression and mislocalisation of ATR and downstream ATM targets involved in DNA repair, such as DMC1 and RAD51 (Barlow et al., 1998, Pandita et al., 1999, Barlow et al., 1997). SPO11 induces many ds breaks per chromosome during leptoneuma (**see table 4.1**), however not all these breaks are required and usually only one crossover event is required per chromosome tetrad, therefore these excessive ds breaks need to be repaired before spermatogenesis can progress (Cooper et al., 2014). The reduced expression and mislocalisation of HR specific DNA repair proteins in ATM deficient mice indicates that cell cycle progression may be halted in leptoneuma due to these excessive SPO11 induced unrepaired DNA breaks. Stalling of spermatogenesis at this stage is due to halting of the cell cycle, and is supported by the evidence that there is increased expression of the cell cycle proteins p53 and p21 in ATM^{-/-} mouse testes, and that double knockout of p53/ATM and p21/ATM partially restores spermatogenesis and allows it to progress to the pachytene stage (Barlow et al., 1997). In addition to managing the repair of DNA

breaks in spermatogenesis, ATM may also be involved in telomere tethering to the nuclear matrix and envelope. During meiosis chromosomes are tethered to the nuclear matrix through their telomeres, which move along the nuclear envelope as a means of aligning chromosomes to correctly synapse with each other. $ATM^{-/-}$ mice exhibited abnormal telomere clustering as well as chromosomal rearrangements (Pandita et al., 1999), which are thought to be contributing factors to the aberrant spermatogenesis. From the results presented in this chapter it is not yet clear at which point in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish testes spermatogenesis is stalled, however, this could be resolved by utilising immunofluorescence confocal microscopy to examine expression and localisation of meiotic associated proteins during spermatogenesis in these fish. Possible investigations that could be undertaken are discussed below in **section 4.3.4.1**.

4.3.4 Future Work to Further Characterise the Testicular Phenotype in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish

4.3.4.1 Determination of When Spermatogenesis Fails in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish

Although results presented in this chapter indicate that spermatogenesis is stalled in meiosis in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$, and these results strongly align with the stalling of spermatogenesis in *brac2* and *Rad51* KO zebrafish, we have not shown experimentally that this is the case, or when in meiosis spermatogenesis is stalled. The localisation of Sycp3, a key component of the synaptonemal complex, has a predictable localisation and multimeric structure as it moves through the phases of meiosis and has been effectively used to characterise the progression of prophase I in zebrafish previously (Saito et al., 2011). Staining of zebrafish testes with Sycp3 in conjunction with monitoring the resolution of Rad51 foci (Vierstraete et al., 2017) in spermatocytes, particularly with the use of confocal microscopy, could accurately define when in prophase I meiosis has gone awry in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish.

Furthermore, the literature suggests that the cells we have termed late spermatocytes in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ testes are cells with highly condensed nuclei undergoing apoptosis (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010). Similar to

experiments carried out in the *brca2* and prophase I mutants, caspase 3 and TUNEL staining could be undertaken to determine if the same is true of the cells observed here (Shive et al., 2010, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Saito et al., 2011).

4.3.4.2 Further Investigations into the Testicular Neoplasia

The testicular neoplasms found in *Brca2*^{-/-} testes were shown to be a mixture of spermatogonia and Sertoli cells (Shive et al., 2010, Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011), while we have determined the neoplasms in *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} testes to be primarily due to Sertoli cell proliferation. Our characterisation was carried out at 3 months, when aberrant proliferation was only beginning, and at 12 months where distinguishing between different cell types was more challenging, while characterisation of *Brca2*^{-/-} testes was carried out at primarily at 6 months (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). The difference in ages, or areas of testes examined, may account for the different profile of the neoplasia. Furthermore, no infiltration of the neoplasia to surrounding tissue was observed at 6 months in the *Brca2* mutants or *dnd* KD morphants, nor was it observed at 12 months in the *ATM* mutants. However, when the *dnd* KD morphants were analysed at 18 months, infiltration of the surrounding tissue was observed. Investigators of the *Brca2* mutants suggest that the analysis of the *Brca2* mutant at the later stage of 18 months may also exhibit this tissue infiltration (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011), and we agree that this could also be the case with *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. Therefore, further histological investigations of *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} testes could be carried out at 6 months to determine if there is a spermatogonium cell contribution to the neoplasms, and at 18 months to determine if there is infiltration of the neoplasm to the surrounding tissue. Furthermore, *vasa* is a germ cell specific molecular marker (Yoon et al., 1997), and its expression and localisation in testicular tissue may be able to provide some clarity on whether there is spermatogonium contribution to the neoplasm in *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} testes.

It is not yet clear whether the neoplasms are a direct result of loss of *ATM* or if they are secondary to the cessation of meiosis. The determination of which pathway of Sertoli cell proliferation has become dysregulated may shed some light on this. In zebrafish, differentiation of new Sertoli cells in conjunction with

spermatogonia A to create new spermatocysts is governed by triiodothyronine (T3) and IGF-3 signalling (Wang et al., 2008, Morais et al., 2013). Laser capture microdissection of sectioned FFPE tissue, followed by gene expression analysis for these and other genes, may identify which pathway has become dysregulated.

Chapter 5

Behavioural Analysis of ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish

5.1 Introduction

One of the biggest barriers to quality of life in AT patients is progressive ataxia caused by cerebellar degeneration. In addition to affecting quality of life, it also has an impact on disease mortality, as at the late stages of disease progression, difficulties in chewing and swallowing food leads to aspirations into the lungs, and an increase in respiratory infections. Therefore, understanding the mechanisms by which cerebellar degeneration occurs is of vital importance in developing therapeutic interventions for AT patients. Despite this importance, there is still no model system that accurately recapitulates the human neurodegenerative phenotype (**see chapter 1, section 1.3**), leaving an epistemic gap in our understanding of these disease mechanisms (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.4.5**).

To determine whether the zebrafish ATM^{sh477/sh477} model is a useful tool in AT research, it is important to determine if it can recapitulate any neurological phenotype. Zebrafish behaviour is increasingly being used to study neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative phenotypes, and their behaviour patterns are being used as high throughput readouts in drug discovery (Norton and Bally-Cuif, 2010, Kokel and Peterson, 2008). Hence, we investigated whether ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish exhibited any behavioural abnormalities that would suggest cerebellar dysfunction. Analysis of zebrafish swimming behaviour can also serve as a useful indicator of other phenotypes (Borges et al., 2016, Miller et al., 2019, Deakin et al., 2019) that may be caused by loss of ATM. Furthermore, histological examination of adult zebrafish cerebella was undertaken to investigate whether there may be abnormalities that do not present with a behavioural phenotype.

5.2 Results

5.2.1 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Show no Gross Defects in Larval Swimming

5.2.1.1 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Larvae Exhibit no Swimming Abnormalities at 5 dpf

AT typically presents with onset of ataxia at approximately 3 years old (Boder and Sedgewick, 1958, Shaikh et al., 2013); therefore, we investigated whether the ATM^{sh477/sh477} fish also exhibit an early behavioural phenotype. As development of zebrafish embryos is external from the mother and occurs at a much faster rate than found in mammals, it is difficult to comparatively stage zebrafish development to humans in the way that can be done in mouse studies (McMenamin et al., 2016, Parichy et al., 2009). Therefore, initially the effects of genotype on swimming capability were investigated at 5 dpf, and this time point was chosen for a number of reasons. First, maternal mRNA contribution resulting from an ATM^{+sh477} in-cross has likely been lost by 5 dpf (**see chapter 3 figure 3.2**), and the molecular effects of loss of ATM may therefore have had time to present at a phenotypic level. Second, zebrafish at 5 dpf are still small enough to analyse in a 96 well format, increasing the throughput of the experiment. Third, zebrafish at 5 dpf are not considered animals under ASPA, 1986, and therefore large amounts of data can be gathered by increasing the power of the experiment while still keeping in line with the principles of the 3Rs (Replacement, Reduction and Refinement). Finally, zebrafish larvae at 5 dpf have started to develop significant cerebellar structures (Hamling et al., 2015), and exhibit behavioural changes in response to stimuli, particularly visual stimuli. It has been observed that zebrafish at this age exposed to high intensity light, which is then suddenly removed, show a significant increase in swimming activity (Easter and Nicola, 1996, Emran et al., 2008, Gao et al., 2014, Burgess and Granato, 2007). This type of response to light/dark stimuli was exploited to measure differences in the swimming between genotypes.

To measure swimming, the zebrafish larvae were analysed using a ZebraBox tracking system (ViewPoint, France). Zebrafish motility is measured in a temperature controlled, soundproof, sealed box, with a controlled cold light source. The evening before analysis, the larvae were arrayed in a 96 well plate in E3 and left to acclimatise to their new environment overnight. The following morning, the zebrafish were placed in the ZebraBox with 100% light intensity, and

again left to acclimatise for 30 min. The larvae were then subjected to 6 cycles of alternating 0% light intensity /100% light intensity (dark/light), each phase lasting 5 min for a total of 30 min, while the swimming activity of each fish was tracked using an infrared camera. Where required, the larvae were then genotyped and the swimming data for each fish analysed. Larval movement was classified as follows: a swimming speed < 2 mm/sec was classed as inactive or no swimming, and a swimming speed of > 2mm/sec was considered active swimming.

To determine if $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibited any behavioural differences at 5 dpf, larvae from $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-crosses were subjected to the above swimming analysis (**figure 5.1**). $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibited a typical response to the onset of darkness by increasing both the distance swum and consequently the duration of their active swimming in the dark phase. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae do not exhibit any defects in swimming ability at 5dpf, as they swam comparable distances to their wild type and heterozygote siblings in both the induced swimming (dark) and basal swimming (light) phases (**figure 5.1 a and b**). Additionally, the duration of when they were active (moving >2mm/s) was similar between homozygous, heterozygous and wild type siblings (**figure 5.1 c and d**). Therefore, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae do not exhibit any abnormalities in their swimming behaviour in response to light/dark stimuli at 5 dpf.

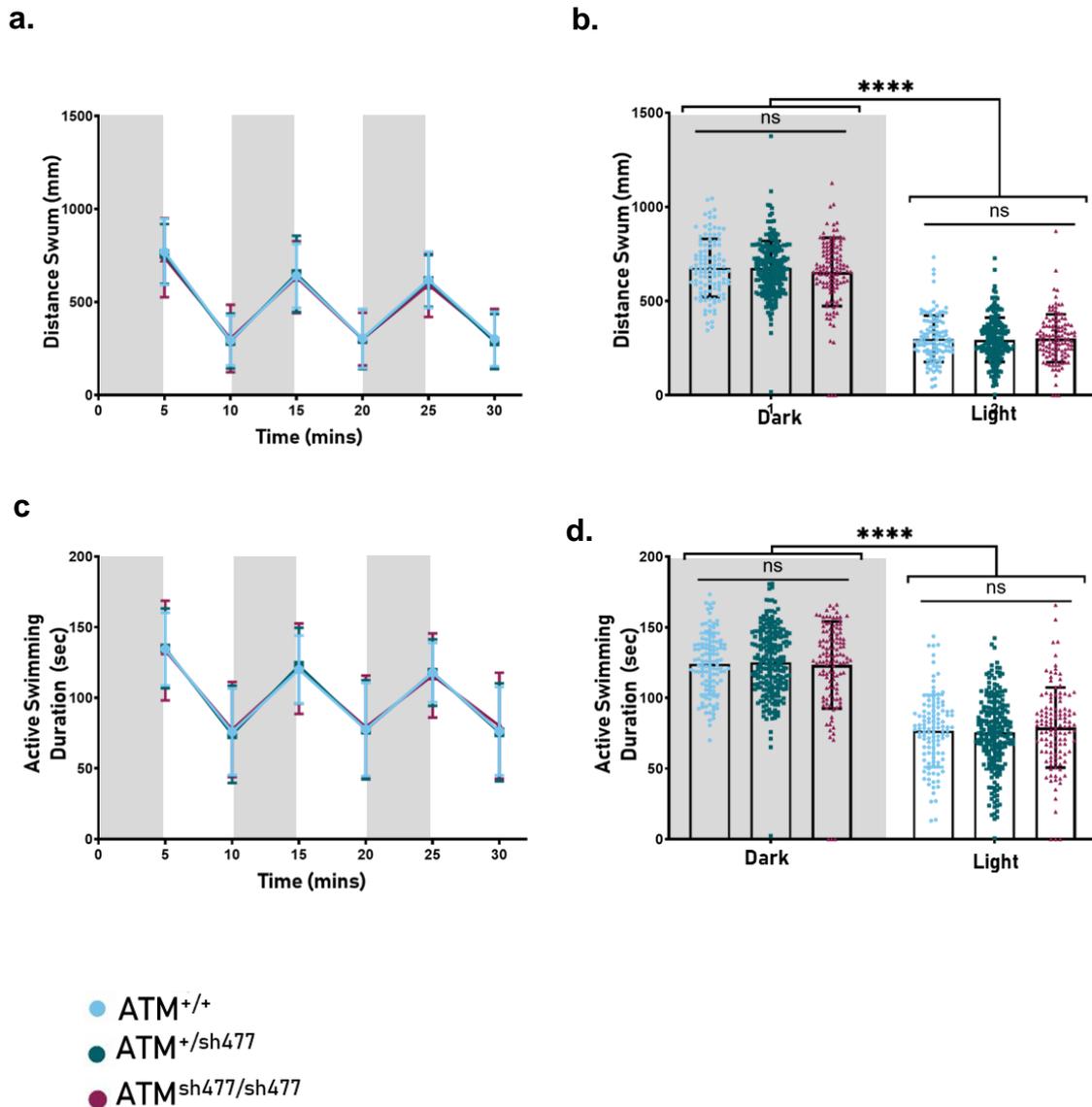


Figure 5.1 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae do not exhibit any detectable swimming abnormalities at 5 dpf. Zebrafish larvae from $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-crosses were arrayed on 96 well plates at 4.3 dpf. At 5 dpf they were subjected to swimming analysis by alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in the graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures, with *post hoc* Tukey's and Sidak's multiple comparisons tests. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.1**. $ATM^{+/+}$ n=110 $ATM^{+/SH477}$ n=212 $ATM^{SH477/SH477}$ n=118. Data shown is combined from N=5 replicate experiments using different $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-crosses.

5.2.1.2 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Larvae Exhibit no Swimming Abnormalities at 5 dpf After Treatments to Induce DNA Damage

ATM plays an intrinsic role in the DDR, and as deficiencies in the DDR due to loss of ATM lead to unrepaired DNA damage, it is thought to be a major contributor to neuronal cell death in AT. It was considered that at 5 dpf, in the context of an ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross where there is likely to be some early maternal contribution of ATM, there may not have been enough time to reach a detrimental threshold of DNA damage in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish (**see Chapter 1, section 1.2.4.5 b**). In order to test the hypothesis that induction of excessive DNA damage has a behavioural effect, we induced DNA damage through genetic, chemical, and physical approaches, and measured the swimming capability of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish at 5 dpf. Moreover, we hypothesised that regardless of whether induction of DNA damage would lead to neuronal cell death in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish, excessive unrepaired global DNA damage would have an impact on overall health of the zebrafish and impair swimming ability, thus leading to reduced motility in response to light/dark stimuli.

a. Genetic Approach to Induce DNA Damage.

We first sought to increase endogenous DNA damage by mutation of the *TDP1* gene. TDP1 is another DNA damage repair protein where mutation results in a hereditary ataxia; Spinocerebellar Ataxia with Axonal Neuropathy (SCAN1) (Pouliot et al., 1999, Interthal et al., 2001, Takashima et al., 2002, El-Khamisy et al., 2005). During DNA replication, Topoisomerase 1 (TOP1) binds to DNA and creates a single strand break to allow access of the replication machinery. The composite of the TOP1 bound to DNA creates a Topoisomerase cleavage complex (TOPcc), which is generally transient and resolved by hydrolysis of the shared 3' phosphodiester bond by TDP1, allowing re-ligation of the DNA backbone. However, a loss of function mutation in *TDP1* causes TOPcc to become permanent, thus causing an unrepaired protein bound DNA single strand break (Koster et al., 2005, Humbert et al., 2009, Pouliot et al., 1999, Interthal et al., 2001, Takashima et al., 2002). These TOPcc have been shown to activate ATM, with ATM being needed for their repair (Humbert et al., 2009, Sordet et al., 2009), and ATM deficient cells show a decrease in their ability to resolve these DNA breaks (Alagoz et al., 2013, Katyal et al., 2014). Zebrafish that are

homozygous for a *TDP1* loss of function mutation ($TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$) do not exhibit any detectable behavioural abnormalities at 5 dpf when compared to heterozygous controls, nor do they exhibit an increase in TOPcc or DNA damage signalling (Zaksauskaite et al., 2021). However, it was hoped that the combination of loss of both *ATM* and *TDP1* would act synergistically to impair the DNA damage response, leading to a detectable early behavioural phenotype.

Larvae from an $ATM^{+/sh477} TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ in-cross were subjected to the same swimming assay as previously outlined in **figure 5.1**. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae on a *TDP1* null background exhibit no differences in their ability to swim (**figure 5.2 a and b**) nor in their response to darkness compared to their $ATM^{+/+} TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ and $ATM^{+/-} TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ siblings (**figure 5.2 c and d**).

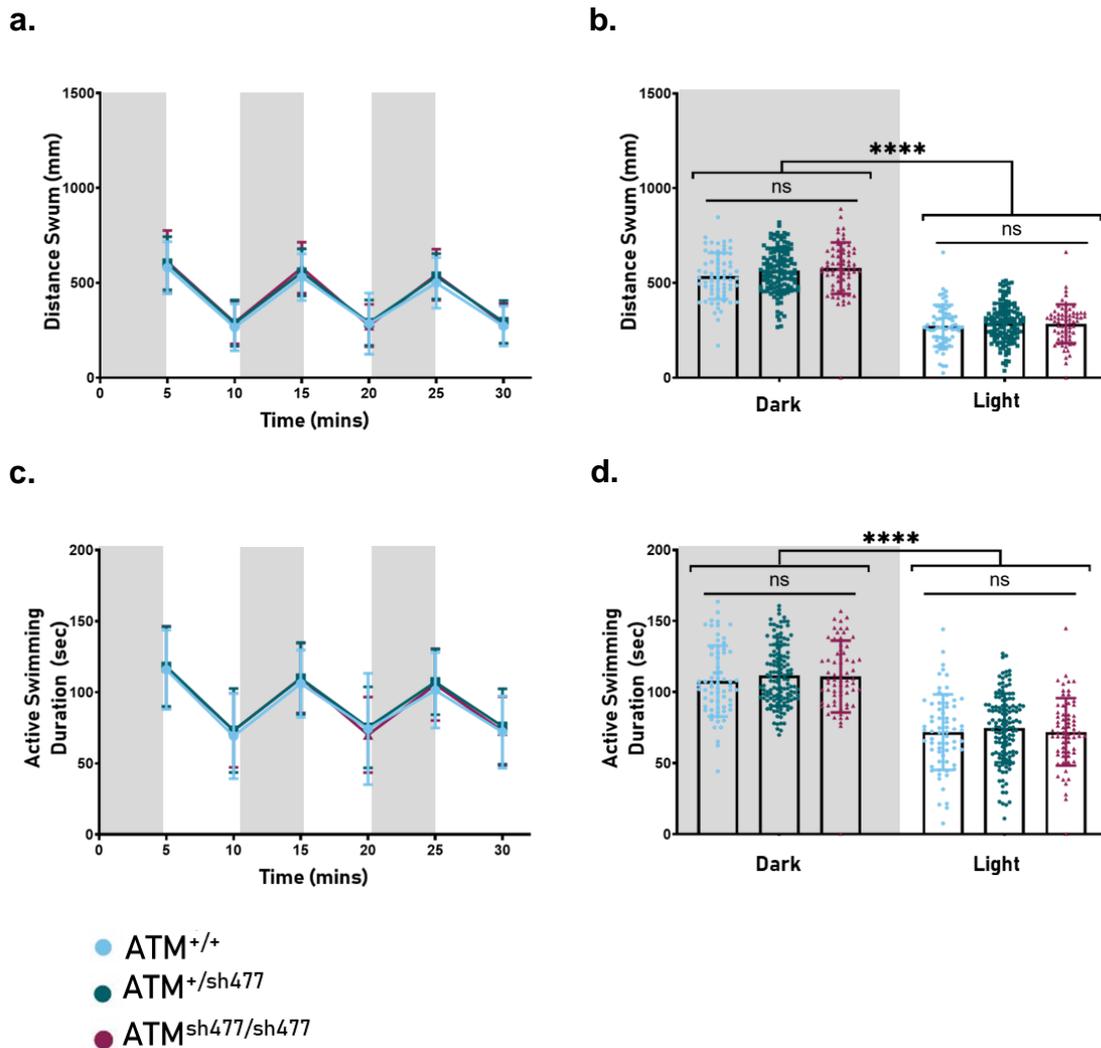


Figure 5.2 ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish larvae on a TDP1^{sh475/sh475} (null) background do not exhibit any detectable swimming abnormalities at 5 dpf. Zebrafish larvae from ATM^{+/sh477}TDP1^{sh475/sh475} in-crosses were arrayed on 96 well plates at 4.3 dpf. At 5 dpf they were subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked at 5dpf. **Note: Grey panels in the graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures, with *post hoc* Tukey's and Sidak's multiple comparisons tests. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.2**. ATM^{+/+} TDP1^{sh475/sh475} = 67 ATM^{+/sh477}TDP1^{sh475/sh475} = 129 ATM^{sh477/sh477}TDP1^{sh475/sh475} = 66 Data shown is combined from N=3 replicate experiments using different ATM^{+/sh477}TDP1^{sh475/sh475} in-crosses.

b. Treatment with Camptothecin

Camptothecin (CPT) is a chemotherapeutic agent that binds TOPcc and prevents their hydrolysis and DNA re-ligation, effectively mimicking the SCAN1 molecular phenotype (Hsiang et al., 1985). CPT has regularly been used to induce DNA damage *in vitro* (Wan et al., 1999, Sakasai et al., 2010), and treatment of larval zebrafish with CPT decreases their ability to swim and induces DNA-protein linked DNA breaks and a DNA damage response (Zaksauskaite et al., 2021). Thus, it was reasoned that treatment of an ATM^{+/_{sh477}} in-cross with CPT would result in DNA damage that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish would be unable to resolve as efficiently as wild types, and this would result in a more severe behavioural phenotype compared to control siblings.

There was little indication of the duration of CPT treatment required, or the most appropriate dose and age to induce maximal DDR without loss of viability. It was also reasoned that an appropriate dose would need to significantly decrease wild type swimming, first to show the treatment of CPT had worked as predicted, and second to allow any possible further decrease in swimming in ATM^{sh477/sh477} larvae to still be detected. Therefore, a treatment protocol was optimised in LWT zebrafish. Effects of CPT and its ability to induce swimming defects were analysed by measuring the darkness-evoked swimming response as above. Viability and survival of the treated larvae were also measured, by presence/absence of a heartbeat. Furthermore, observed decreases in swimming should occur from molecular abnormalities secondary to excessive DNA damage, and should not be due to any gross morphological/developmental irregularities that would impact the ability of the larvae to swim. Consequently, zebrafish treated with CPT were monitored daily for morphological abnormalities.

i. Optimisation of DMSO Concentration

Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) - (CH₃)₂SO, is a commonly used aprotic solvent in molecular biology, and is regularly used in the drug treatment of zebrafish to improve drug solubility (Hutchinson et al., 2006, Rammler and Zaffaroni, 1967, Kais et al., 2013a). The toxicity of the solvent has been studied in depth in zebrafish. Zebrafish larvae and embryos can withstand up to 2% without lethality

(Chen et al., 2011), and concentrations of 1-2% are routinely used in our lab to study the molecular effects of drug treatments on zebrafish. Therefore, when embryos/larvae were treated with CPT, they were also treated with DMSO. Initially during CPT optimisation, zebrafish treated with CPT were co treated with 1% DMSO (**see table 5.1**). However, treatment with 1% DMSO resulted in a significant decrease in swimming distance compared to untreated embryos (data not shown). Consequently, optimisation of DMSO treatment concentration for behavioural assays was also required.

To optimise DMSO concentrations, embryos (6 hpf) were arrayed on a 96 well plate and at 48 hpf treated with 1%, 0.1% or 0.01% DMSO. At 5 dpf, zebrafish larvae were subjected to the darkness evoked swimming response, and data analysed (**figure 5.3**). Zebrafish treated with 1% DMSO exhibited significant deficiencies in the distance swum in the dark (**figure 5.3 a and b**), and consequently in the duration of time they spent in active swimming in the dark compared to untreated zebrafish (**figure 5.3 c and d**). Zebrafish treated with 0.1% and 0.01% DMSO show no difference in the distance swum or time spent in active swimming in the dark compared to untreated siblings. As such, optimisation of CPT concentration was continued with a co-treatment of 0.1% DMSO final concentration.

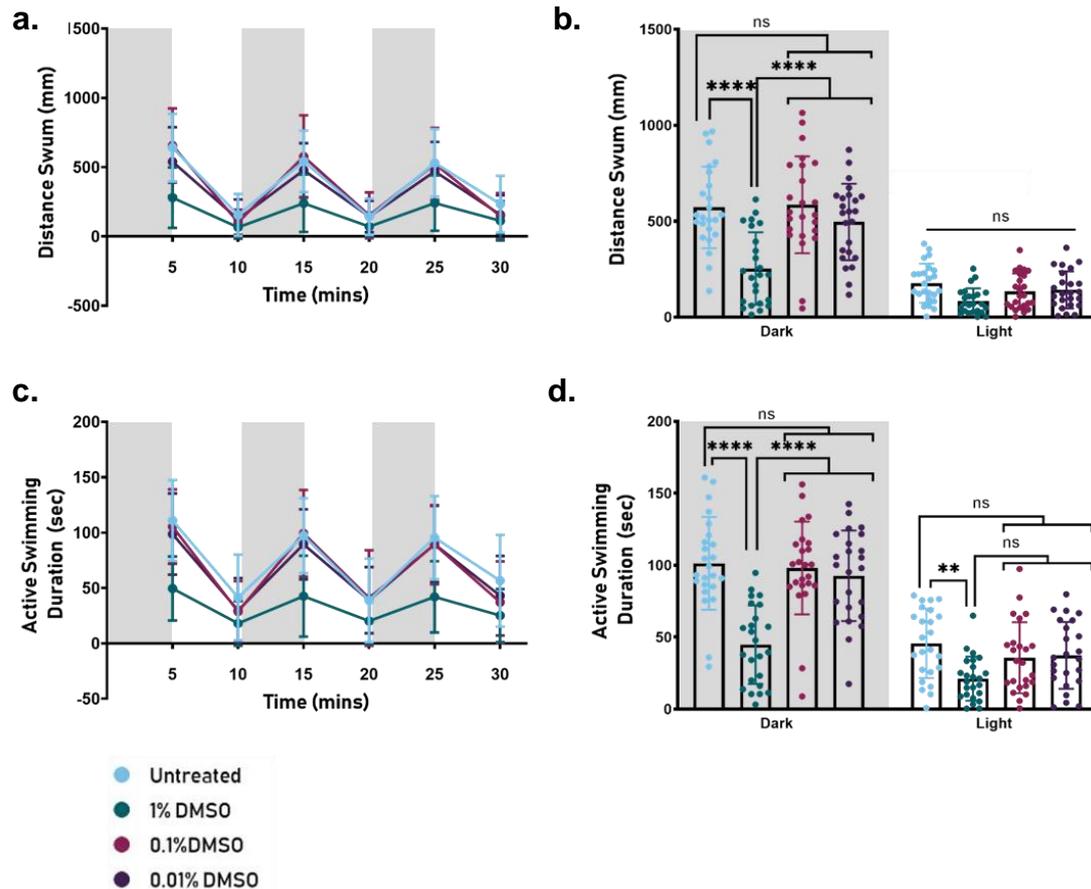


Figure 5.3 Optimisation of DMSO treatment at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf. Wild type (LWT strain) zebrafish larvae were untreated or treated with decreasing doses of DMSO (1%, 0.1% and 0.01%) in E3 at 48 hpf in 96 well plates. At 5dpf, zebrafish were assayed by being subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.3**. Untreated n=24, 1% DMSO treated n=24, 0.1% DMSO treated n=24, 0.01% treated n=24. N=1 replicate.

ii. Optimisation of Treatment Time and Dose of CPT

It was hypothesised that older zebrafish would be more resistant to the effects of CPT, therefore in order to optimise CPT dose and duration of treatment, zebrafish were treated with a broad range of doses that increased with age. A full list of all doses used for optimisation according to the time point they were used at can be found in **table 5.1**. For optimisations, zebrafish embryos at 6 hpf were arrayed on a 96 well plate in E3 media and subsequently treated with CPT/DMSO in E3 at the appropriate time point. At 5 dpf zebrafish larvae were subjected to swimming analysis as previously. The aim of optimisation was to achieve a significant change in induced swimming to ensure treatment with CPT was causing an effect, but not so large an effect that it would cause the presumed more sensitive ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish to completely stop or have undetectable swimming.

Table 5.1 Optimisation of Treatment Time and Dose of CPT

Age of treatment	Doses of CPT (nM)				
	1% DMSO		0.1% DMSO		
	Optimisation 1 (Data Not shown)	Optimisation 2 (Data Not shown)	Optimisation 3 (appendix 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.5.3, 5.5.4 and 5.5.5)	Optimisation 4 (figure 5.4)	Optimisation 5 (figure 5.5)
8 hpf	2.5, 5, 10, 20	2, 2.5, 3, 3.5	1, 1.5, 2, 2.5	-	-
24 hpf	2.5, 5, 10, 20	2, 2.5, 3, 3.5	2, 2.5, 3, 3.5	-	-
48 hpf	25, 50, 100, 200	12.5, 25, 50, 100	12.5, 25, 50, 100	0.1, 1, 12.5, 25, 50	1, 10
72 hpf	250, 500, 600, 700	50, 100, 200, 400	50, 100, 200, 400	-	-
96 hpf	250, 500, 600, 700	400, 500, 600, 700	400, 500, 600, 700	-	-

Initial optimisations (optimisation 3) with 0.1% DMSO showed embryonic zebrafish treated at 8 and 24 hpf were extremely sensitive to CPT where treatment with 2 nM and 3.5 nM, respectively, were enough to significantly decrease their darkness-evoked response (**appendices 5.4.1 and 5.4.3 a and b**). Zebrafish treated at 48 and 72 hpf showed a relatively moderate sensitivity to

CPT, where doses of 12.5 nM and 25 nM respectively, exhibited a significant decrease in their motility (**appendices 5.4.1 and 5.4.3 c and d**). However, zebrafish treated at 48 hpf with 100 nM of CPT appear curled and atrophied upon inspection and had died by 5 dpf, so were therefore not included in swimming analysis. Larval zebrafish at 96 hpf appear comparatively robust to CPT treatment, as doses between 400-700 nM significantly decrease their darkness-evoked response to a similar level (**appendices 5.4.1 and 5.4.3 e**). However, while zebrafish treated in this dose range swam similar distances, zebrafish treated with, 600 nM and 700 nM CPT were atrophied and curled upon inspection. It was also observed that while these fish were alive (maintained a heartbeat) (**appendix 5.4.3 a**), their basal activity was vastly decreased compared to untreated controls, and the larvae appeared unable to move or only twitch upon tactile stimulus. These results of decreased swimming in the dark after CPT treatment are mirrored in the duration spent in active swimming in these fish (**appendix 5.4.3**). Interestingly, treatment at 48 hpf whereby the dose was doubled for each treatment from 12.5 to 25 to 50 nM shows an approximately 50% decrease in swimming distance and swimming duration in the dark with each doubling of the dose (**appendices 5.4.1 c and 5.4.3c**). This is also seen when treated at 72 hpf where the dose was double each time from 25, 50, and 100 nM, and again both the swimming distance and swimming duration decreased by approximately half with each dose (**appendices 5.4.1 d and 5.4.3 d**). These data confirm the hypothesis that the resistance to CPT is age dependent, and that treatment with CPT can hinder the motility of zebrafish in a dose dependent manner. Treatment with relatively moderate doses of CPT at either 48 or 72 hpf produces the desired results of a dose dependent effect on swimming with no obvious morphological defects. Optimisations were continued at 48 hpf to ensure the period of DNA damage was as prolonged as possible.

To ensure reproducibility of a dose dependent reduction in swimming, and to determine a more refined range of CPT doses, treatment with CPT at 48 hpf was optimised again (**table 5.1, optimisation 4**). Zebrafish were treated within a relatively small dose range of CPT (0.1 nM – 50 nM) (**figure 5.4**) and their swimming analysed. Treatment with low doses of 0.1 and 1 nM CPT had no effect on swimming. Treatment with 12.5-50 nM CPT caused significant impairment in

the average distance travelled and average active duration in the dark, but only the highest dose caused a decrease in motility without light-driving (**figure 5.4 b and d**). At these doses, no obvious morphological abnormalities were witnessed. Treatment with 12.5 nM CPT reduced the total distance swum by approximately half, from 1000 mm to 500 mm. However, since we hoped to detect increased sensitivity of ATM^{sh477/sh477} to CPT, we felt this effect may be too strong.

Consequently, the dose was optimised one final time (**table 5.1 optimisation 5**). Zebrafish were treated as before at 48 hpf with either 1 nM or 10 nM CPT (**figure 5.5**). Zebrafish treated with 1 nM CPT again show no significant decrease in their swimming, however, 10 nM CPT treated fish show a ~15% decrease in the average distance travelled in induced swimming (dark phase), with an average of 156.6 mm in the 0.1% DMSO treated to 130 mm in the 10 nM CPT treated larvae (**figure 5.5 b**). There was no significant difference observed in the duration of active swimming in the dark phases between DMSO only, control, or CPT treated zebrafish (**figure 5.5 d**), yet there was a decrease in duration of active basal swimming (light phases) of 1 nM treatment. As 10 nM CPT treatment at 48 hpf caused a slight but significant decrease in induced swimming, it was thought to be optimum for treatment of the progeny of an ATM^{+sh477} in-cross to allow for the presumed increase sensitivity of ATM^{sh477/sh477}.

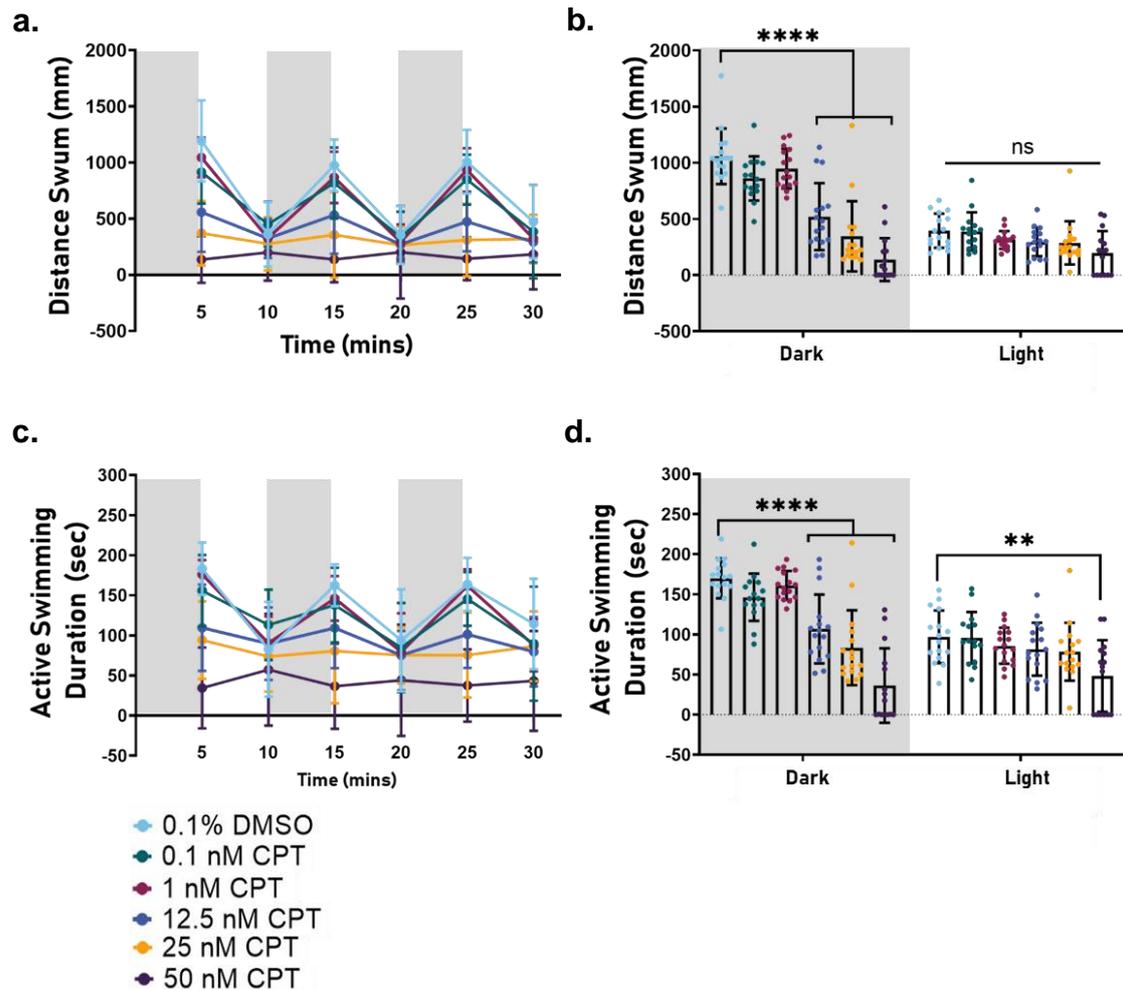


Figure 5.4 Optimisation 4 of CPT treatment on wild type (LWT) zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf. Zebrafish larvae were treated with 0.1% DMSO or 0.1% DMSO and CPT in E3 at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate. At 5dpf, zebrafish were assayed by being subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in the graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by to-way ANOVA with RM with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.5**. 0.1% DMSO treated n=16, 0.1 nM CPT treated n=15, 1nM CPT treated n=16, 12.5 nM CPT treated n=16, 25 nM CPT treated n=16, 50 nM CPT treated n=15, N=1 Replicate.

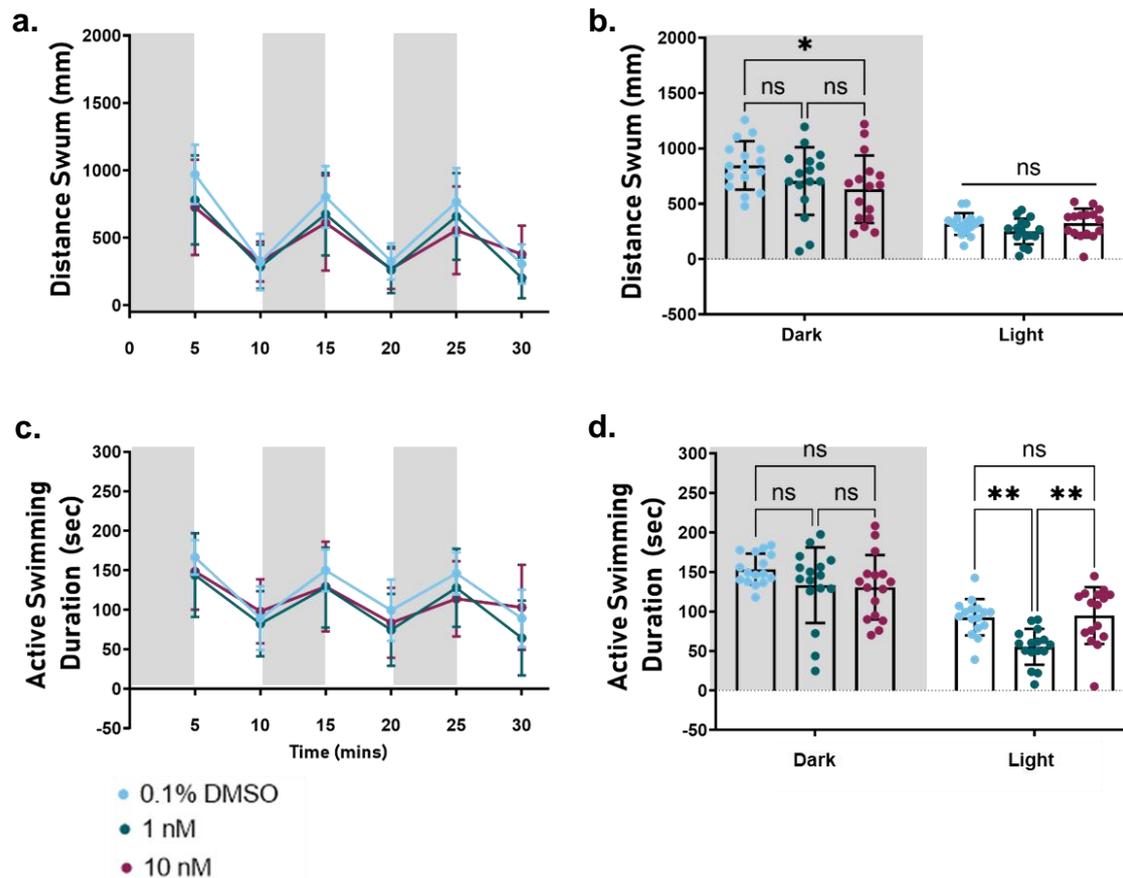


Figure 5.5 Optimisation 5 of CPT treatment on wild type (LWT) zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf. Zebrafish larvae were untreated, treated with 0.1% DMSO or 0.1% DMSO and CPT in E3 at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate. At 5dpf, zebrafish were assayed by being subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent the dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with RM with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons or Šídák's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.6**. 0.1% DMSO treated n=15, 1 nM CPT treated n=16, 10 nM CPT treated n=16, N=1 Replicate.

iii. $ATM^{sh447/sh447}$ Zebrafish do not Show Increased Sensitivity to 10 nM CPT

Larvae from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated at 48 hpf with 10 nM CPT/0.1% DMSO as previously described, and compared to 0.1% DMSO treated as control (**figure 5.6**). Unexpectedly, $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish treated with 10 nM CPT showed no decrease in the average distance swum in the dark phases (**figure 5.6. b**) as previous wild type had done. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ mutants treated with 10 nM CPT did not show any changes in their motility and had comparable behaviour to $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish treated with 10 nM CPT. It remains possible that higher doses would be required to identify any increased sensitivity in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$.

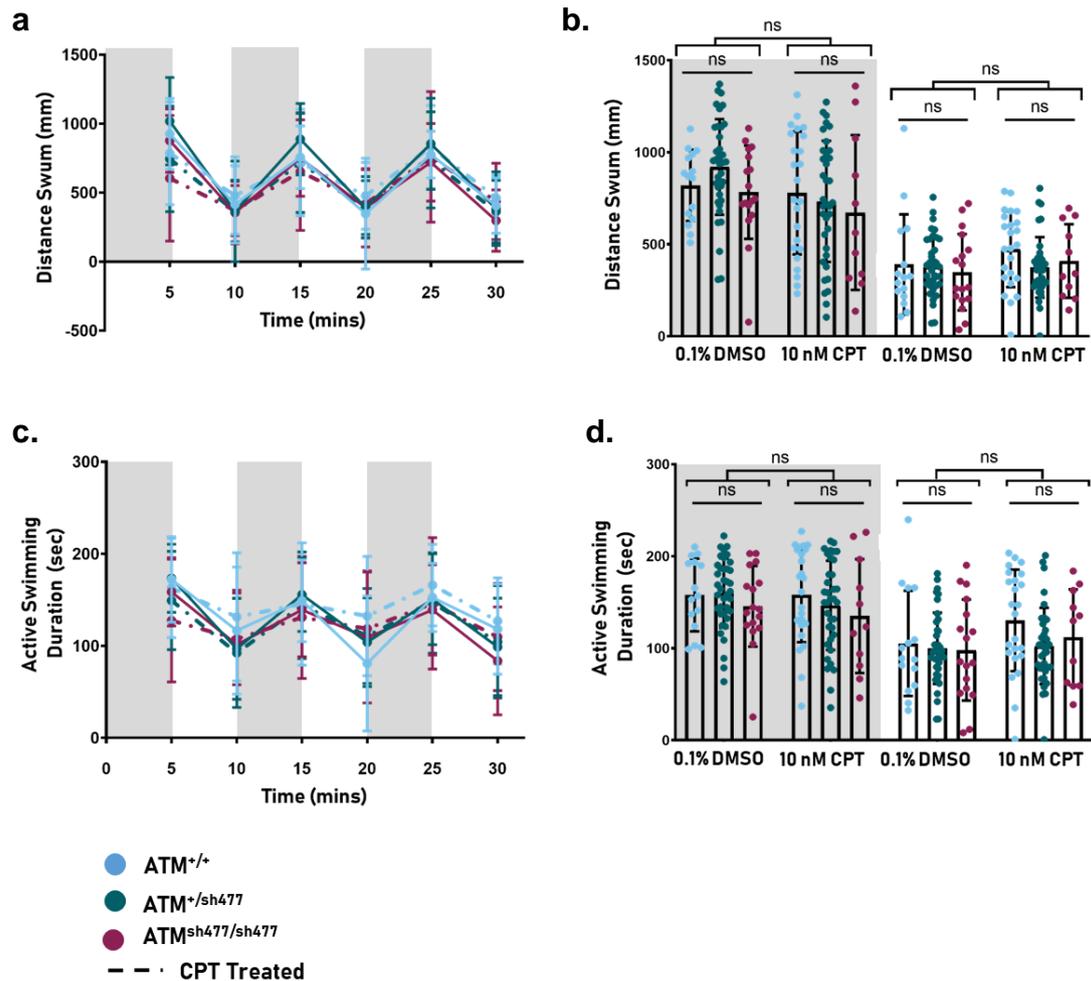


Figure 5.6 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibit no behavioural abnormalities in response to DNA damaging agent CPT compared to their control siblings. Zebrafish larvae were treated with 0.1% DMSO or 10 nM CPT at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate. At 5dpf, zebrafish were assayed by being subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent the dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by an ordinary two-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.7**. N=2. 0.1% DMSO treated: $ATM^{+/+}$ n=15, $ATM^{+/sh477}$ n=38, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ n=17. 10 nM CPT treated: $ATM^{+/+}$ n=24, $ATM^{+/sh477}$ n=36, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ n=11.

c. $ATM^{sh447/sh447}$ Zebrafish do not show Increased Sensitivity to Ionising Radiation

As $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ embryos and larvae showed no detectable increased sensitivity to treatment with moderate doses of CPT, other means of inducing DNA damage were sought. Zebrafish embryos from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were serially treated with a moderate dose of 8 Gy of IR, with a Caesium 137 radiation source (γ rays), daily between 1 and 4 dpf. Larvae were treated serially in this way to ensure a consistent level of DNA damage through development and to attempt to mitigate any DNA damage repair that occurred in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae by alternative pathways. The larvae were then subjected to swimming analysis as before (**figure 5.7**). Zebrafish larvae do appear highly sensitive to IR, and while all zebrafish did exhibit a typical darkness-evoked swimming response (**figure 5.7 a and d**), swimming distance and duration were significantly decreased in IR treated larvae (**figure 5.7 b and d**). Nevertheless, even though there was sensitivity to IR exhibited by $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae, this was to the same extent as their wild type siblings, as no significant differences were observed in their ability to swim, or their darkness-evoked swimming response in either the dark or light cycles (**figure 5.7 b and d**).

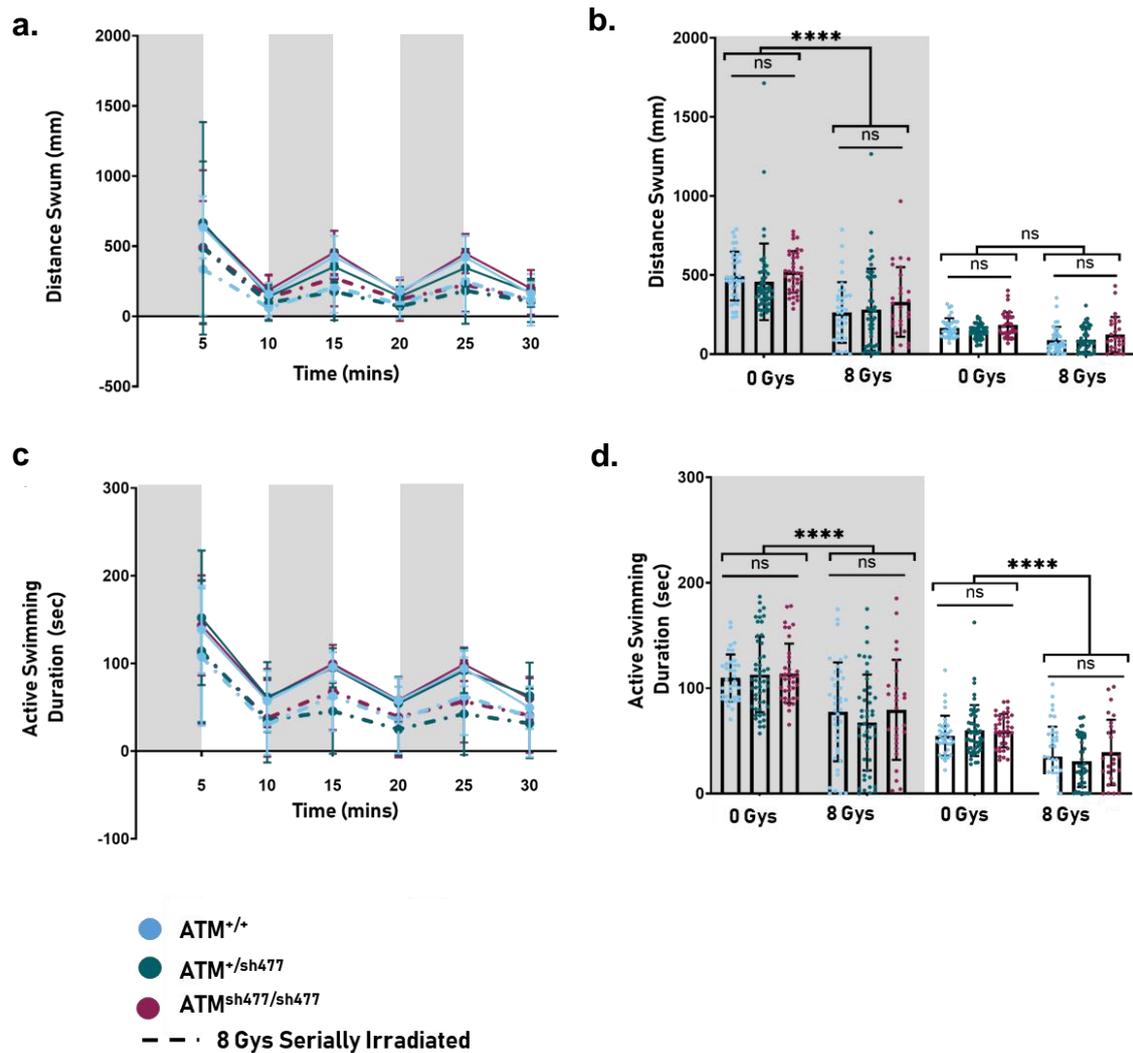


Figure 5.7 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibit no swimming defects in response to exogenous DNA damage induced by IR compared to their control siblings. Zebrafish were treated at 1, 2, 3 and 4 dpf with 8 Gy IR. At 4.5 dpf zebrafish larvae were then arrayed on a 96 well plate and at 5dpf were subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent the dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by ordinary two-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.8**. Number of fish analysed: $ATM^{+/+}=35$ $ATM^{+/SH477}=50$ $ATM^{SH477/SH477}=36$, N=3 Replicates.

5.2.1.3 Treatment of Wild Type and ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Larvae with an ATM Inhibitor to Investigate Compensatory Mechanisms

Previously we have shown that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish do not appear to be any more sensitive to ionising radiation than their wild type siblings, nor are there differences in their DNA damage response at the larval stage (**see chapter 3, section 3.2.3**). In this chapter, we have shown that these mutant larvae show no difference in behaviour either before or after treatment with DNA damaging agents. In short, investigations undertaken suggest that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish have no phenotypes consistent with defective somatic DNA damage repair. As previously outlined in **chapter 3, section 3.3.2.2**, it is possible that in the context of somatic DNA insult and injury in zebrafish, there is protein redundancy, and loss of ATM signalling is compensated by other aspects of the DDR. While preliminary investigations do not suggest genetic compensation by upregulation of a similar gene (**chapter 3, section 3.2.4**), it is possible that there is compensation at the protein level by activation of another protein that functions in the DDR.

The literature suggests that the compensatory mechanism acts through two other PIKK proteins, ATR and DNA-PKcs (Kumar et al., 2014, Zha et al., 2011b, Lee et al., 2013, Gapud et al., 2011, Gapud and Sleckman, 2011, Yue et al., 2020, Adams et al., 2006, Tomimatsu et al., 2009, Schlam-Babayov et al., 2020, Gurley and Kemp, 2001, Sekiguchi et al., 2001, Gladdy et al., 2006). Furthermore, mouse models that globally express ATM, but do not have a functional kinase domain (kinase dead- KinD) are embryonic lethal, and in conditional neuronal knockouts for a kinase dead ATM there is a greater amount of unrepaired DNA damage in the brain (Yamamoto et al., 2012b, Daniel et al., 2012, Yamamoto et al., 2016, Tal et al., 2018). Despite the wide range of mutations reported in the ATM gene, there have been no kinase dead mutations reported in patients, suggesting that this does not result in a viable pregnancy in humans. Similar instances of compensation have been reported after loss of ATR (Menolfi et al., 2018). Therefore, if the phenotype of a system with a non-functional ATM protein is more severe than a system without the presence of ATM, then it suggests that there is a secondary pathway that can be upregulated in the absence of ATM, and that this ameliorates at least some of the effects of

its loss. Therefore, it suggests that this compensation does not happen in the presence of a non-functional ATM protein. We hypothesised that chemical inhibition of ATM kinase activity in wild type larvae would be damaging, and may induce a molecular phenotype similar to a KinD mutant, as the compensatory mechanism would not be upregulated. Conversely, in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, as there is predicted to be no ATM to inhibit, the compensatory mechanism would therefore not be affected. This is outlined in more detail in **figure 5.8**.

Consequently, we treated offspring from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross with the ATM kinase inhibitor KU-55933 (ATMi), and used the behavioural assay outlined in the sections above as a readout to determine the 'health' of the relevant fish. While KU-55933 does have a high specificity for inhibition of ATM (IC_{50} in cell free assays is 13 nM), it can inhibit ATR and DNA-PKcs at higher doses, therefore the treatment dose administered to the $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross needed to be considered. Treatment of zebrafish embryos with concentrations above 3nM with KU-55933 have been shown to be high enough to affect in zebrafish embryos and concentrations of 12 nM have been shown not to induce any morphological abnormalities (Kumaran and Fazry, 2018). Therefore, zebrafish at 24 hpf were treated with 10 nM KU-55933 (ATMi). At 48 hpf, DNA damage was induced by a single dose of 12 Gy IR, and the ATMi was washed out of the media 6 hours post IR treatment and zebrafish left to develop as usual. At 5 dpf, zebrafish were subjected to the behavioural assay (**figure 5.9**). Wild type and mutant zebrafish treated with 10 nM ATMi showed no differences in their ability to swim (**figure 5.9 a**), and both maintained their darkness-evoked response (**figure 5.9 a and c**). However, when DNA damage was induced by treatment with 12 Gy IR, wild type larvae treated with 10 nM ATMi exhibited a decrease in their ability to swim in the dark phase, while $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae treated in the same manner did not show the same decrease, and swam at comparable levels to both DMSO only treated and 10 nM ATMi un-irradiated larvae (**figure 5.9 b and d**). This effect could possibly be due to compensation in the DDR pathway in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larvae.

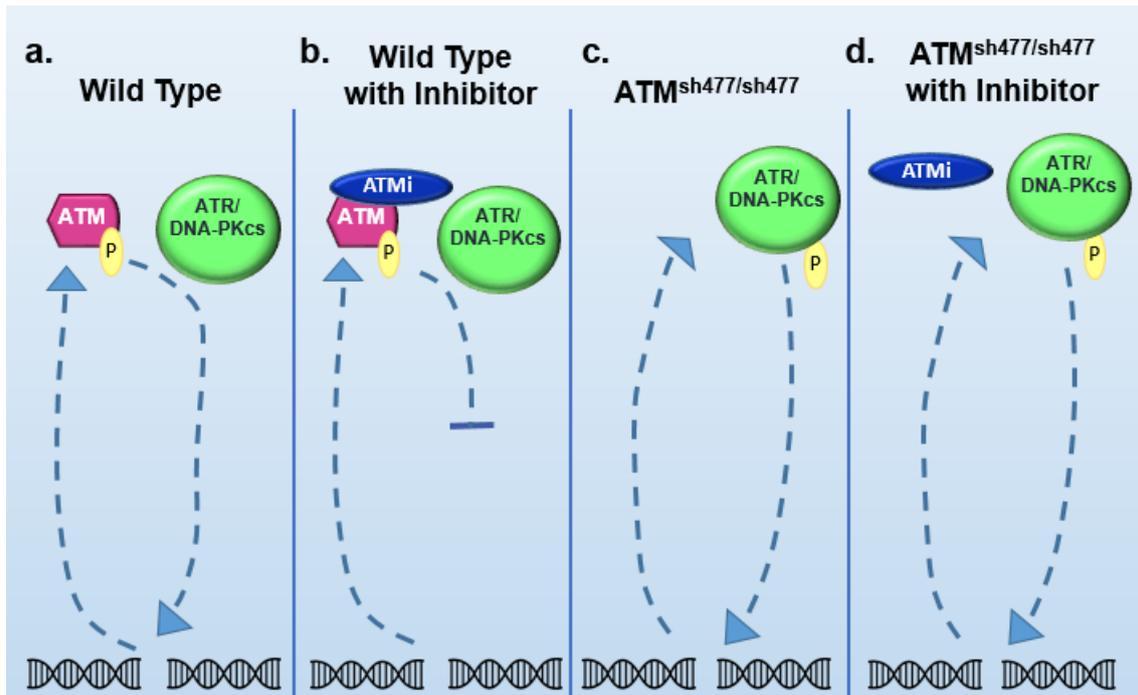


Figure 5.8. Model for the effect of ATMi on DDR in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. **a.** Canonically, DNA damage activates ATM, and in turn ATM activates a number of interdependent pathways to repair the damage. **b.** Functional ATM, in the presence of an ATM inhibitor, is activated by DNA damage, but is unable to activate the downstream pathway and repair the damage leading to genotoxic effects **c.** In the absence of the ATM protein, DNA damage activates other components of the DDR response and there is compensation for loss of ATM, leading to repair of DNA damage **d.** In an ATM deficient system, the ATM inhibitor has no target, therefore the compensatory mechanism leading to DNA repair is activated.

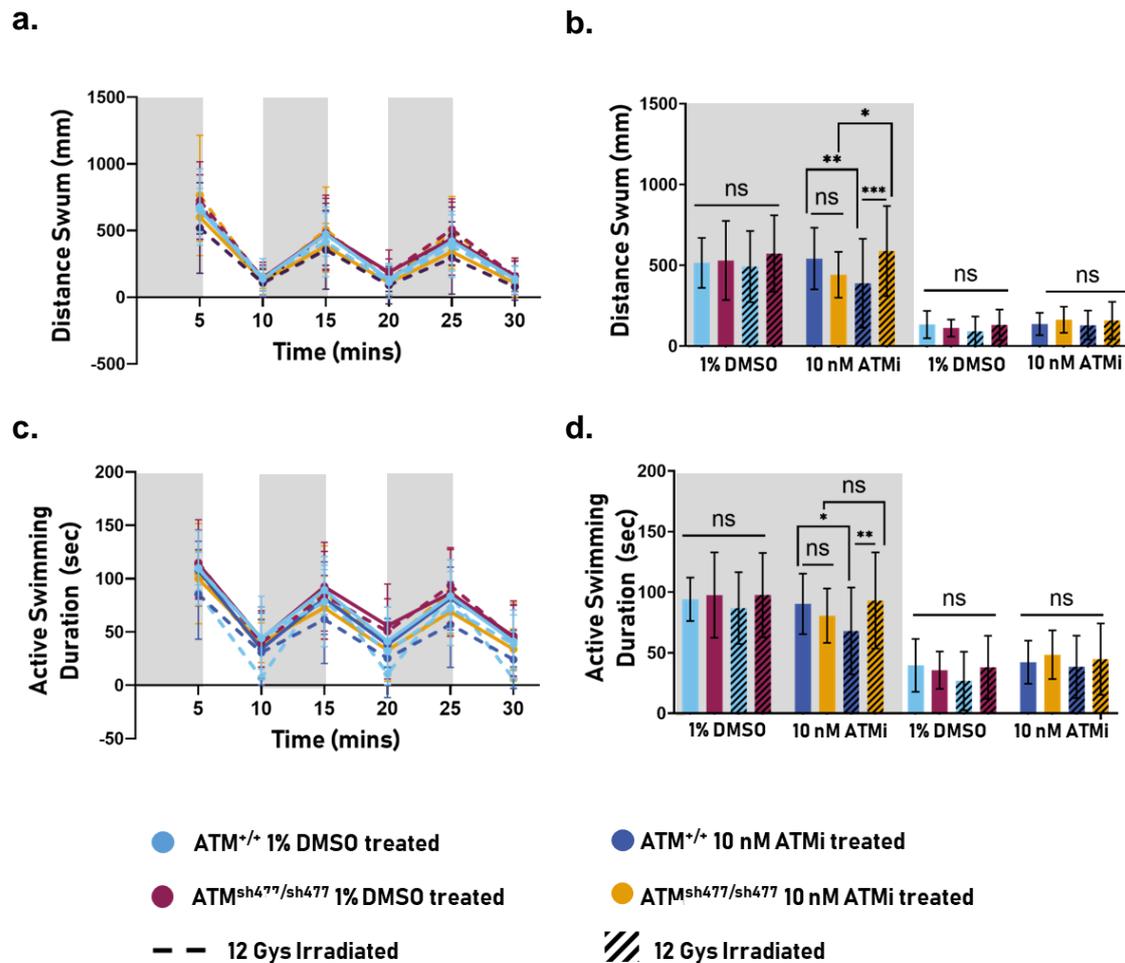


Figure 5.9 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish do not exhibit sensitivity to an ATM inhibitor. Zebrafish from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated at 24 hpf with 1% DMSO/10 nM ATMi in a 6 well plate. At 48 hpf zebrafish were then treated with a single dose of 12 Gy IR and the ATMi washed out of the media 6 hours post IR treatment. At 4.5 dpf zebrafish larvae were then arrayed on a 96 well plate and at 5dpf were subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent the dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with a *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.9.1**. Number of fish analysed per condition can be found in **appendix 5.9.2**.

5.2.2 Investigations into $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Juvenile Zebrafish Swimming with and without Induction of Exogenous DNA Damage

It was considered for a number of reasons that 5 dpf may be too early to detect behavioural changes due to the loss of ATM. First, the DNA damage threshold theory (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.4.5 b**) suggests that endogenous DNA damage occurs accumulatively over time, and therefore 5 dpf may not be sufficient for this to happen, despite treatment with DNA damaging agents. This may be particularly relevant during the first few hours of development in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, as they are likely to still have ATM protein translated from maternally contributed mRNA. Therefore, a longer period of development without ATM activity might allow deleterious changes to occur. This has been observed with other neurodegenerative KO zebrafish models produced from a heterozygous in-cross in our lab (Doubi and Grierson, unpublished data). Secondly, the zebrafish cerebellum is still at an early phase of development at 5 dpf (Hamling et al., 2015), and as such many of the relevant cells are not yet fully mature. Thus, zebrafish PCs at 5 dpf may not have the same sensitivity to DNA damage as they would later in development. Finally, it is unclear whether the possible compensation investigated above in **section 5.2.1.3** is still evident later in development. However, the likely failure of meiotic recombination in adult males (**chapter 4, section 4.2.2.3**) supports the idea that some biological processes cannot be rescued by a compensatory pathway. Therefore, zebrafish from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were analysed for their swimming and darkness-evoked response at 12 dpf.

Zebrafish were raised in 10 cm plates in an incubator at 28 °C until 5 dpf, at which point the 5 dpf zebrafish larvae were moved to the aquarium system. At 12 dpf, zebrafish larvae were removed from the aquarium system and arrayed in 12 well plates. From this point on, zebrafish were treated as before by allowing them to acclimatise to 100% light intensity in the light box for 30 min, followed by the swimming analysis assay.

Compared to 5 dpf, at 12 dpf $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish show a reduced darkness-evoked swimming response, whereby they increase their swimming in the 3 dark phases from an average of 1851.12 mm in 100% light intensity, to an average of 2130.71 mm in the dark phases ($p=0.0282$) (**figure 5.10 a and c**). $ATM^{+/sh477}$ and

$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish appear to have lost their darkness-evoked motor response. However, loss of a darkness-evoked response has been observed in other zebrafish models and their controls at 12 dpf in our lab (Doubi and Grierson, unpublished data), and this is not thought to be linked to a neurodegenerative phenotype. Despite the difference in the darkness-evoked swimming observed between $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish and $ATM^{+/sh477}/ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, there is no statistical difference in the average distance swum or the average duration of active swimming of each genotype in either the dark or light phases (**figure 5.10 b and d**).

As no swimming defects were observed in 12 dpf zebrafish, larvae were treated with a single dose of either 2 Gy or 8 Gy IR at 48 hpf to induce DNA damage. In previous experiments where swimming analysis was performed at 5 dpf after treatment with IR, embryos were treated daily to ensure maximum levels of DNA damage. Here however, as the zebrafish are over 5.2 dpf, they are governed by the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 (ASPA), which requires minimisation of adverse effects of regulated procedures performed under the project license. As can be seen from **chapter 3, figures 3.7 and 3.8**, serial treatment of zebrafish from 1-4 dpf has significant adverse effects on zebrafish morphology and consequently on their health. Therefore, it was decided that to ensure zebrafish over 5.2 dpf treated with IR remained in line with ASPA 1986, zebrafish received a single dose of IR. Zebrafish were treated at 48hpf, as treatment with IR at this age induces a DNA damage response (**see chapter 3 figure 3.10**) and cellular changes from these genotoxic insults are still detectable at 12 dpf (Morsli, unpublished data). Therefore, it was hoped that a strong induction of DNA damage early in development, coupled with the longer time of development from 5 to 12 dpf, would allow molecular changes to translate to behavioural changes and a detectable swimming defect.

Zebrafish from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross were treated with either 0, 2, or 8 Gy IR at 48 hpf and then transferred to the aquarium system at 5 dpf. During development, zebrafish larvae were monitored daily for adverse effects of IR and viability, but none were found. At 12 dpf, zebrafish were arrayed on 12 well plates, and subjected to swimming analysis as before (**figure 5.11**). Irradiated zebrafish still maintained their darkness-evoked response (**figure 5.11 a and c**), and there

was no significant difference in the average distance swum in the dark phases, or in the duration of active swimming between untreated controls and irradiated fish (**figure 5.11 b and d**). However, there was a difference in the average distance swum in the dark phases between 2 Gy and 8 Gy treated ($p=0.0091$) (**figure 5.11 b**). In basal swimming (light phases) there was a significant increase in average swimming distance between 0 Gy and 2 Gy ($p=0.0266$), but no difference observed between 0 Gy and 8 Gy treated fish. Similarly to the dark phase, zebrafish treated with 2 Gy and 8 Gy show a significant difference in the average distance swum ($p=0.0002$), and consequently in the duration spent in active swimming ($p=0.0132$) (**figure 5.11 b and d**). However, despite treatment with IR at 48 hpf having an effect on zebrafish swimming at 12 dpf, there were no differences observed between IR treated genotypes, with $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish appearing to exhibit the same sensitivity to IR as $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish.

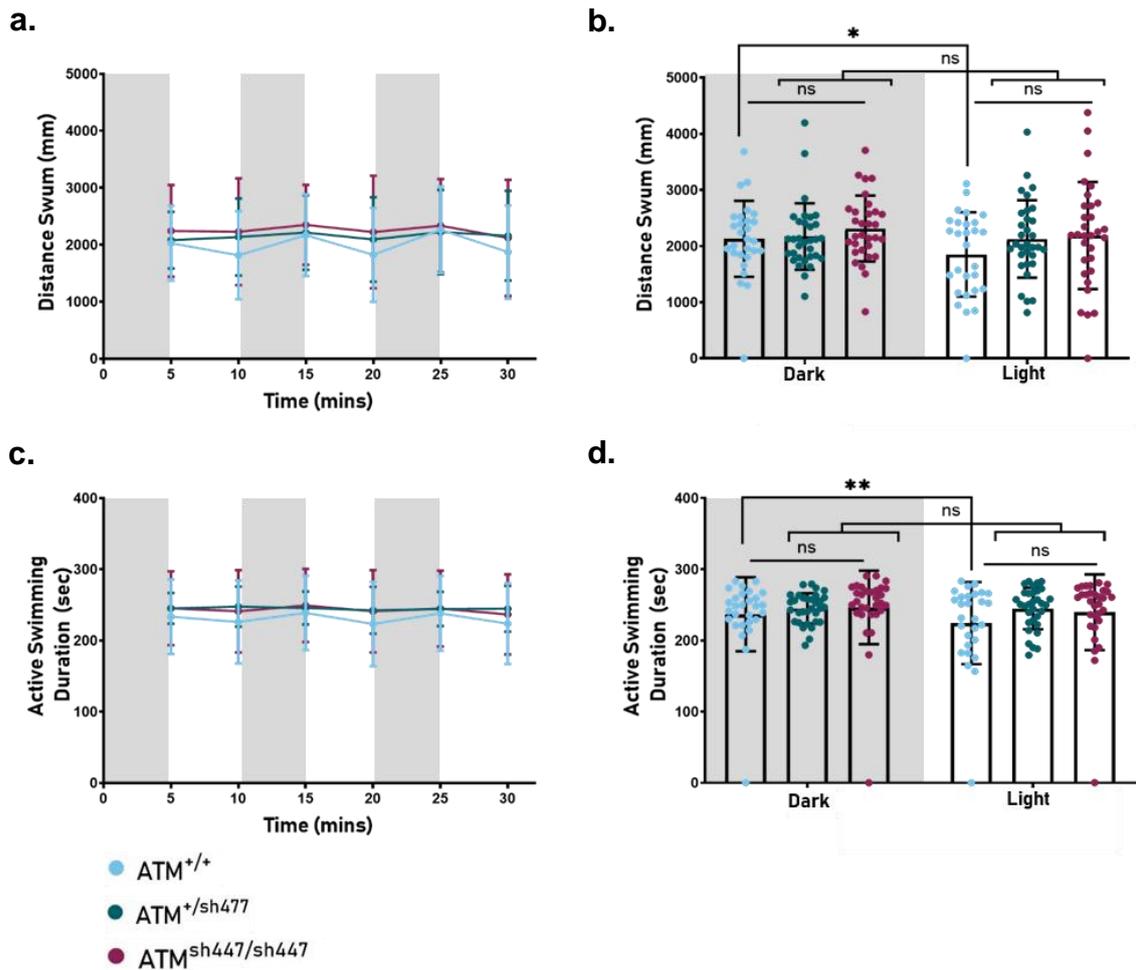


Figure 5.10 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibit no swimming defects at 12 dpf. Zebrafish larvae were arrayed on a 12 well plates and subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA with RM, with *post hoc* Tukey's and Sidak's multiple comparisons tests. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.10**. Number of fish analysed: $ATM^{+/+}=28$ $ATM^{+/SH477}=32$ $ATM^{SH477/SH477}=31$. N=3 Replicates.

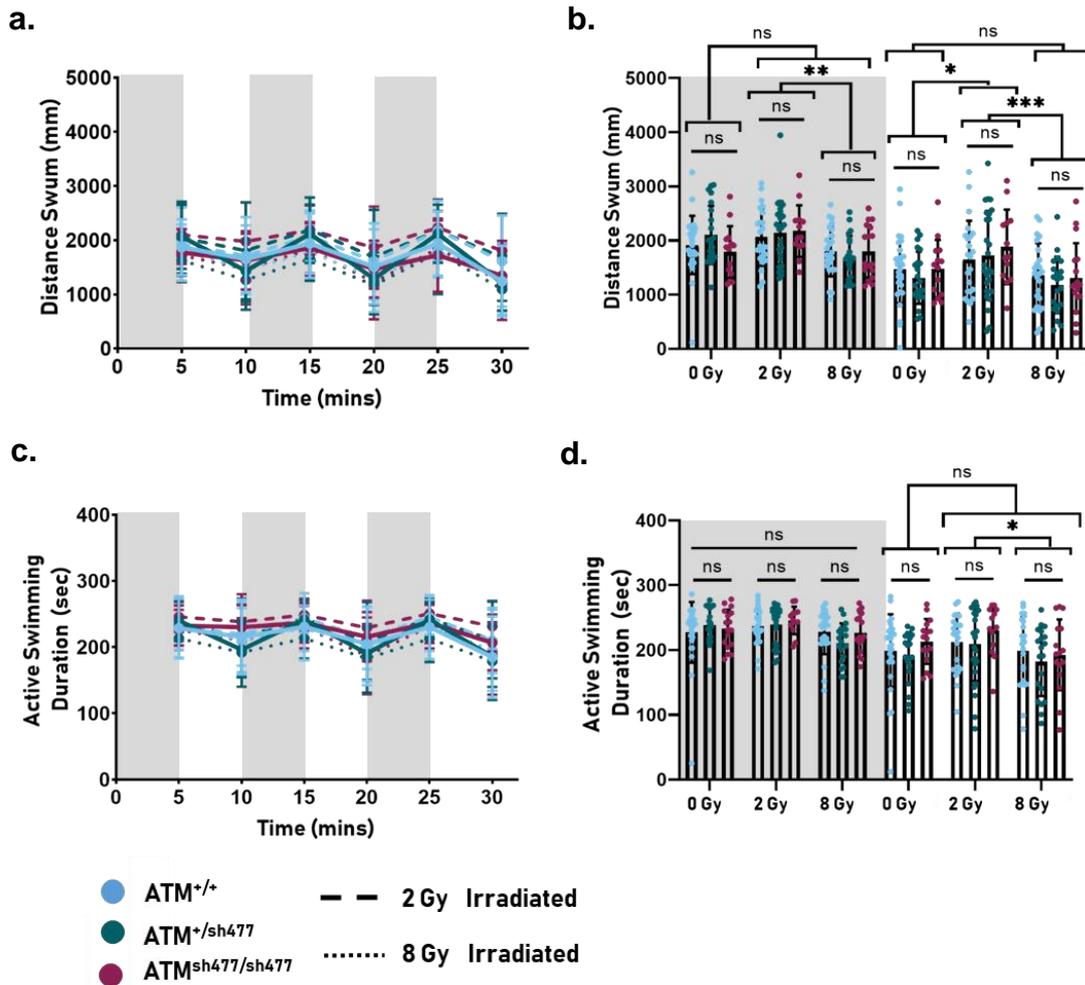


Figure 5.11 $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibit no swimming defects at 12 dpf after treatment at 48 hpf with ionising radiation. Zebrafish larvae were arrayed on a 12 well plates and subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) of 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **b.** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. **c.** Average duration spent in active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **d.** Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases; individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data were analysed by two-way ANOVA, with *post hoc* Tukey's multiple comparisons tests. Error bars represent mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.11.1**. N=3 Replicates, n numbers for each condition can be found in **appendix 5.11.2**.

5.2.3 Investigations into Adult $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish Swimming Behaviour

As the neurological symptoms of AT are progressive and usually not completely debilitating until the second decade of life (van Os et al., 2017b, Micol et al., 2011a), symptoms in an animal model of the disease may only be detectable in adult stages. Additionally, adult TDP1 null zebrafish show increased sensitivity to DNA damaging agents that result in a behavioural phenotype, whereas TDP1 null larvae do not (Zaksauskaite et al., 2021). Furthermore, if the neurological phenotype is caused by a threshold of DNA damage being reached over time, then a behavioural phenotype may not present until much later in the life of a zebrafish. Therefore, we speculated that adult $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish may have increased DNA damage that would present as a behavioural phenotype. As $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ develop as males (**chapter 3, section 3.2.2**), we investigated the swimming of adult male $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish compared to sex-matched wild type siblings.

To investigate motor function, endurance and balance, zebrafish at 7 months were tested in the swim tunnel, a narrow tube through which the water flow rate can be controlled. The flow rate of water was increased from 6.57 cm/s to 45.5 cm/s by increments of 6.57 cm/s every 5 mins for a total of 35 mins or until the fish reached exhaustion, and the time was recorded. This data was used to calculate the critical swimming velocity (U_{crit}), which is the maximum velocity of swimming a fish can sustain for a given period of time (Brett, 1964, Plaut, 2000). The U_{crit} in zebrafish is thought to be analogous to the gait transition speed in mammals (Gilbert et al., 2014, Tierney, 2011, Peake and Farrell, 2006), and changes in gait speed can greatly affect patients suffering from ataxia (Schniepp et al., 2017, Schniepp et al., 2012).

The mean U_{crit} was lower in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish (30.99 cm/s) than in $ATM^{+/+}$ siblings (34.83 cm/s), but this difference was not significant (**figure 5.12 a**). However, several factors, including the weight and length of a fish, can affect zebrafish performance in this assay, so these were also recorded and used to normalise the U_{crit} to control for any effect these may have on swimming. No significant differences were observed in the length of $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish (**figure 5.12 b**), or in their weight (**figure 5.12 c**). Despite this, when the U_{crit} data were normalised to length (**figure 5.12 d**), the swimming ability of

ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish was significantly decreased from a mean of 10.86 in ATM^{+/+}, to a mean of 9.308 in ATM^{sh477/sh477} ($p= 0.0470$), which is a ~15% decrease. Similarly, when the U_{crit} data was normalised to weight (**figure 5.12 e**), the swimming ability of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish was also significantly decreased, from a mean of 115.3 in ATM^{+/+} to a mean of 89.10 in ATM^{sh477/sh477} ($p= 0.0098$), a decrease of ~22%. Therefore, it appears that 7-month-old ATM^{sh477/sh477} have a small but significant reduction in swimming ability.

To determine whether ATM mutation also affects basal swimming, total motility was investigated by tracking unhindered movement over a 3 hour period. Zebrafish were placed in a 0.8 L tank, and swimming tracked from a side view with an infrared camera. Active swimming was categorised as movement >25 mm/sec. ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish show a ~24% decrease in the average distance travelled over the course of 3 hours (**figure 5.13 a and b**), although, this decrease was not significant ($p=0.2685$). The duration of active swimming was also decreased in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish compared to controls (~33%) (**figure 5.13 c and d**), but again was not significant ($p= 0.0685$).

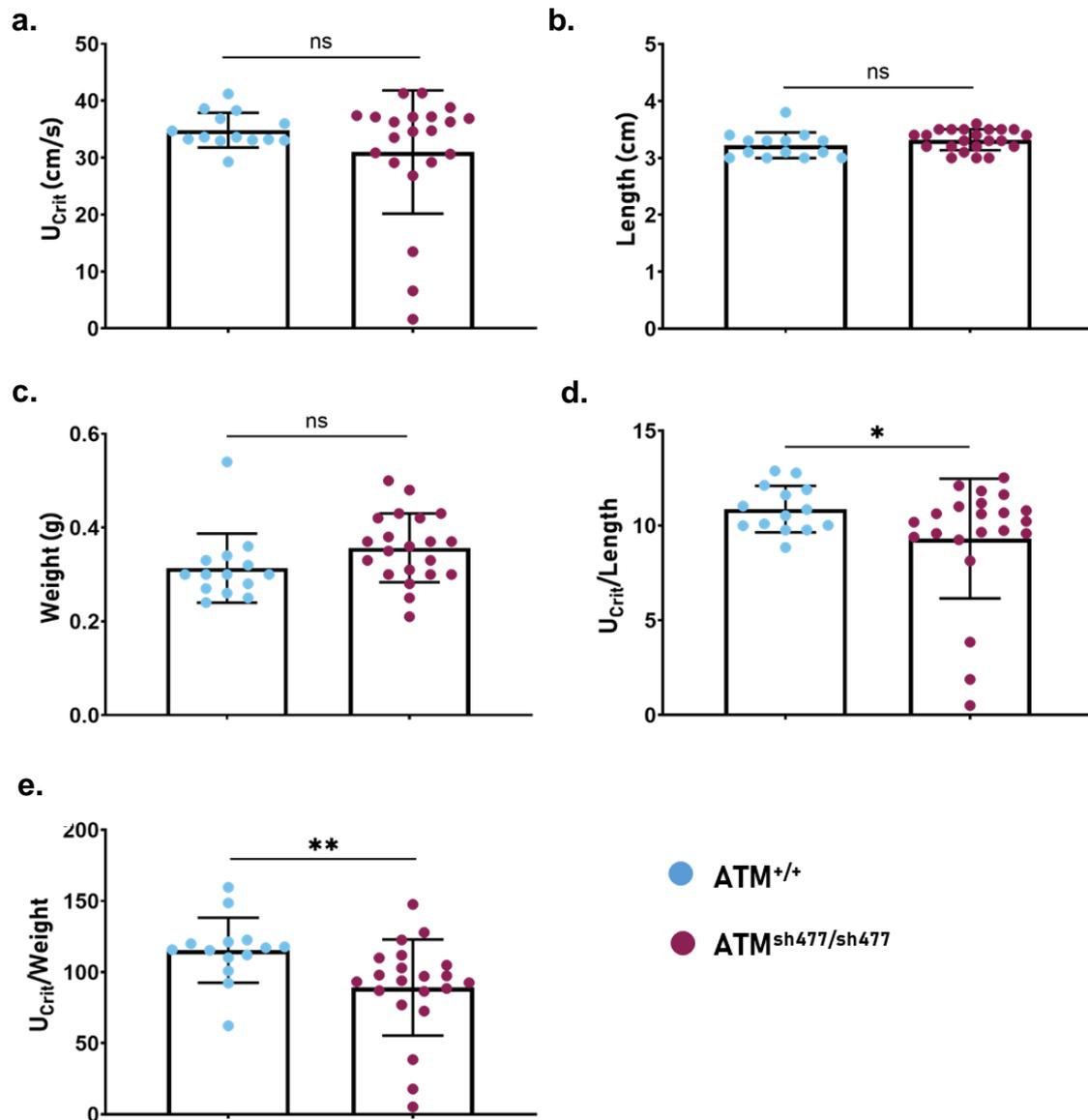


Figure 5.12 Adult male *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish show significant differences in their swimming endurance at 7 months of age compared to wild type siblings. Swimming endurance was determined by measuring the Critical Swimming Velocity (U_{crit}) of sex matched fish (males) by placing each fish in a narrow tube that allowed a variable flow rate of water to pass through. The flow rate was increased in increments every 5 mins up to 35 mins or until the time the fish became exhausted. This time point was recorded and used to calculate the U_{crit} . **a.** U_{crit} of 7 month old zebrafish. **b.** length of the fish immediately after the endurance test **c.** weight of the fish immediately after the endurance test. **d.** U_{crit} normalised to length of fish **e.** U_{crit} normalised to weight of fish. All data were analysed using an unpaired t-test with Welch's correction, and full statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.12** *ATM*^{+/+} n=14, *ATM*^{sh477/sh477} n= 21.

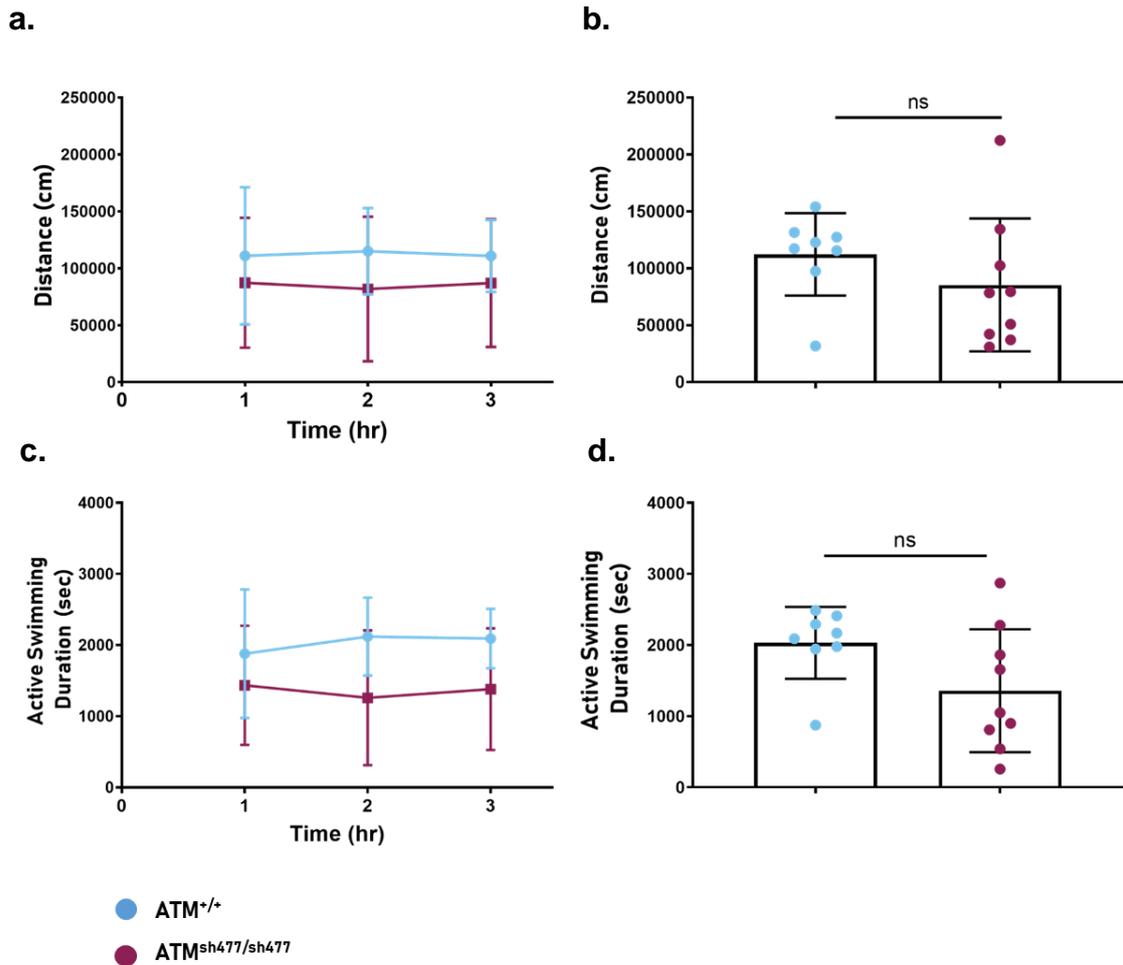
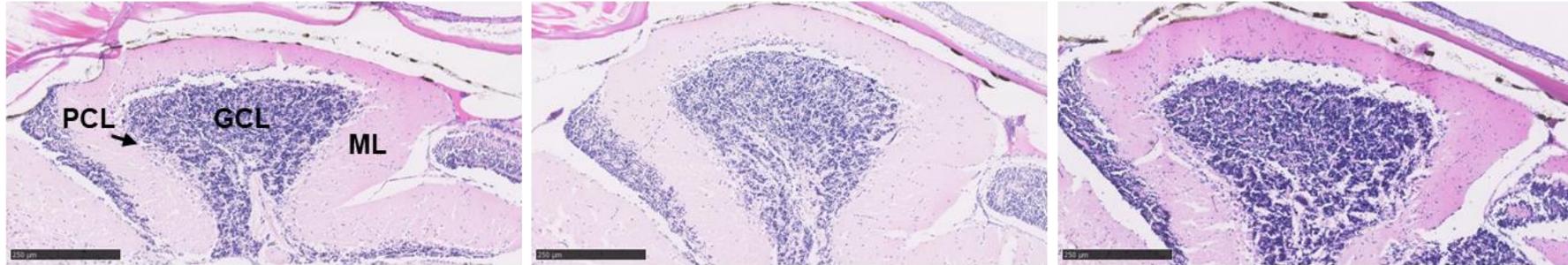


Figure 5.13 Investigations into Total Motility of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. Sex matched zebrafish (males) at 10 months were placed in individual tanks and left to acclimatise for 1 hr, after which their swimming was tracked over 3 hrs. **a.** Average distance travelled by ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} fish each hour. **b.** Average distance travelled by ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish/hour. **c.** Average duration that each genotype spent in active swimming each hour. **d.** Average duration that each fish spent in active swimming. Data were analysed using an unpaired t-test with Welch's correction, and statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.13**. ATM^{+/+} n=8, ATM^{sh477/sh477} n=9.

5.2.4 Histological Examinations of Adult ATM^{sh477/sh477} Cerebella

The reduced swimming ability in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish, outlined above, indicated that there was the possibility of pathological changes in the cerebellum. Therefore, preliminary investigations of cerebellar pathology were carried out. ATM^{sh477/sh477} and ATM^{+/+} siblings at 12 months were formalin fixed and paraffin embedded for sectioning. Sections of 5 µm thickness were cut and stained with H&E. ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish had normal gross morphology and cerebellar organisation, with the granule cell layer, Purkinje cell layer and molecular layer all visible (**figure 5.14 and 5.15**).

ATM^{+/+}



ATM^{sh477/sh477}

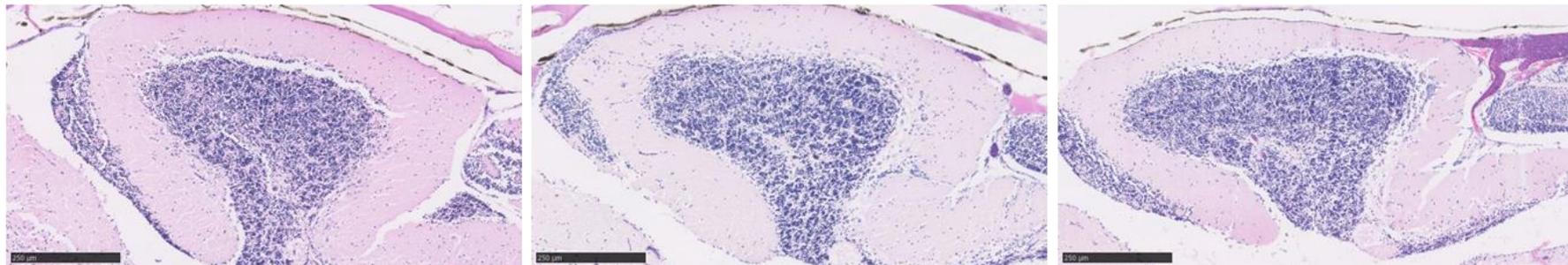
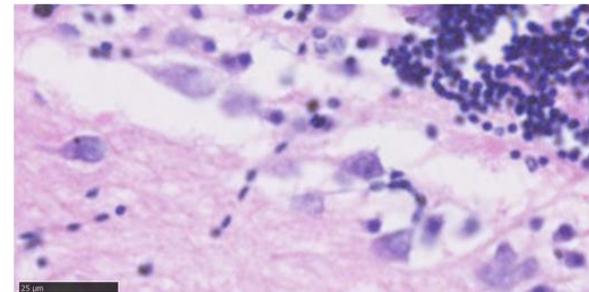
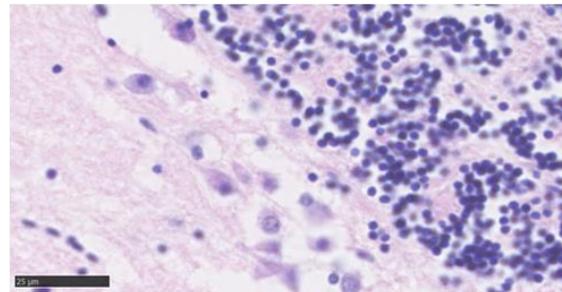
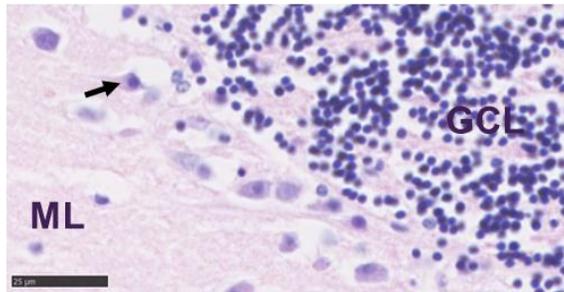


Figure 5.14 H&E Stained Sagittal Sections of ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} cerebella at 12 months. Top panel, ATM^{+/+} zebrafish, bottom panel ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. Arrowheads pointing to the Purkinje cell layer (PCL), granule cell layer (GCL) and molecular layer (ML) are also labelled. Scale bar represents 250 μm.

ATM^{+/+}



ATM^{sh477/sh477}

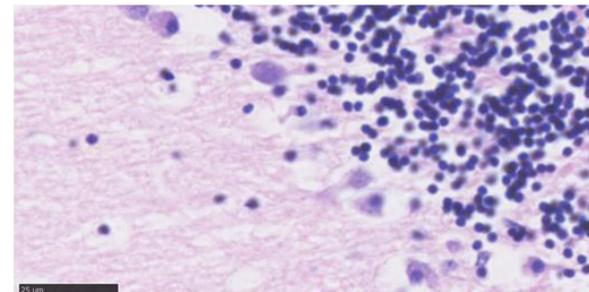
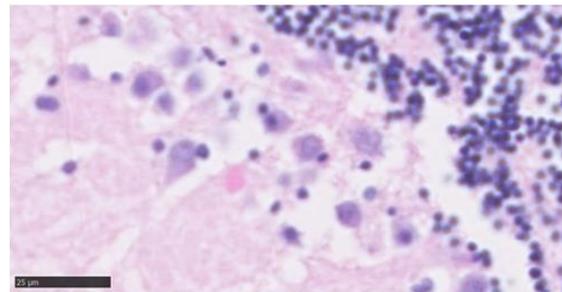
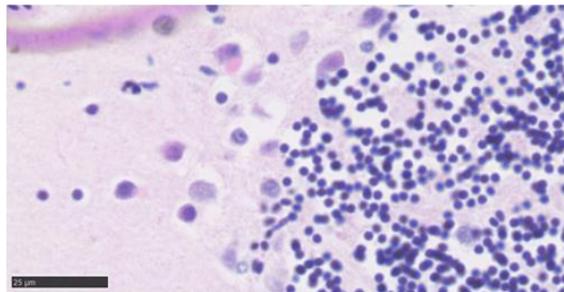


Figure 5.15 H&E Stained sagittal sections of ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} cerebella at 12 months (higher power). Top panel, ATM^{+/+} zebrafish, bottom panel ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. The Purkinje cell layer lies at the interface of the granular cell layer and the molecular layer. Purkinje cell body (arrow) with dendritic arbores extending into the molecular layer. Scale bars represent 25 µm.

5.3 Discussion

Following on from chapters 3 and 4 where the molecular and morphological effects of ATM KO in zebrafish were discussed, this chapter describes how we characterised the effects on behaviour and cerebellar morphology. As outlined in detail in **chapter 1 section 1.3**, no extant AT model accurately replicates all the neurological and behavioural characteristics seen in AT patients. This has caused a plateau in our understanding of the pathogenic mechanisms that cause neurodegeneration, and in our ability to identify new therapies. Therefore, the goals of the investigations in this chapter were twofold; first, to determine if ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish exhibit any signs of neurodegeneration, and second, if they do, whether these abnormalities can be feasibly exploited for drug screening.

5.3.1 ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Larvae Show no Divergence in their Behaviour from Wild Type Controls after Attempts to Induce DNA Damage

ATM^{sh477/sh477} exhibited no abnormalities in behaviour at the larval stage (**figure 5.1**). This is not surprising, as AT is thought to be a degenerative, not a developmental disorder, and the quiescent nature of the cells involved in a fully developed cerebellum is likely to be a contributing factor to neurodegeneration. At 5 dpf in zebrafish development, the cerebellum is only beginning to develop and most cells are still proliferative, and therefore may not be especially sensitive to the loss of ATM.

Results in chapter 3 indicate that that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish are no more sensitive to induction of DNA damage than their wild type siblings. However, it was considered that subtle changes may exist that were not apparent in the morphological studies (**chapter 3, figure 3.8**), and that these may be detected in the larvae's behaviour. Furthermore, surpassing a threshold of neuronal DNA damage is a leading hypothesis for the cause of neuronal death in AT (**see chapter, 1 section 1.2.4.5 b**). Therefore, attempts were made to induce a behavioural phenotype by induction of DNA damage, using three complementary approaches.

5.3.1.1 ATM^{sh477/sh477} TDP1^{sh475/sh475} Double Mutants

First we used a genetic approach to increase DNA damage. The ATM^{+/sh477} line was crossed with a TDP1 KO line (TDP1^{sh475/sh475}), mutation of which in humans causes

the hereditary ataxia SCAN1. SCAN1 is considered another DNA repair ataxia, where loss of TDP1 causes unrepaired protein linked ssDNA breaks during DNA replication (Takashima et al., 2002, El-Khamisy et al., 2005). It should be noted that although single mutation of ATM (**chapter 3, figure 3.9 and 3.10**) or TDP1 in zebrafish (Zaksauskaite et al., 2021) does not exhibit increased sensitivity to DNA damage, it is not known if double mutants of these genes do. Comparison of light/dark stimulated swimming in TDP1^{sh475/sh475} mutants and ATM^{sh477/sh477} TDP1^{sh475/sh475} double mutant siblings under basal conditions showed no differences (**figure 5.2**), indicating that mutation of both of these genes does not result in increased DNA damage that is at least enough to pass a threshold to have deleterious effects that can be detected in swimming. Therefore, in order to determine whether ATM^{sh477/sh477} TDP1^{sh475/sh475} zebrafish do exhibit any increase in genotoxic insults, molecular characterisation would need to be carried out. To do this H₂AX phosphorylation with and without induction of DNA damage by IR should be considered. However, as TDP1 and ATM are both implicated in the repair of TOP1cc's during replication, then the relative expression of TOP1cc should be quantified with and without treatment with CPT in these double mutant fish.

5.3.1.2 Induction of DNA Damage by CPT

Second, attempts were made to induce DNA damage by treatment with the genotoxic agent CPT, (**figure 5.6**) (Hsiang et al., 1989, Hsiang et al., 1985, Wan et al., 1999, Sakasai et al., 2010, Zaksauskaite et al., 2021). Optimisations of CPT treatment revealed an unexpected result, whereby treatment of zebrafish with 1% DMSO led to a significant decrease in overall swimming distances and active duration (**figure 5.3**). The reasons for this decrease in swimming were not investigated further, however, the observation that 1% DMSO treated zebrafish did not lose their darkness evoked response (**figure 5.3 a and c**) suggests that the decrease in motor function is not developmental. Previous studies have also investigated a link between DMSO concentration and motor function in zebrafish. However, these reports are conflicting, as some suggest that concentrations of 1% and below have no effect on motor function, while some report both hypo and hyper activity (Hallare et al., 2006, Sackerman et al., 2010, Chen et al., 2011, de Esch et al., 2012). However, it should be noted, that in these studies zebrafish were treated at different time points, assayed at different ages, using different assays. Therefore, the conflicting results should not

be surprising. However, a recent study has been published where the effect of DMSO concentration on swimming was investigated using the same tracking system as used here, using the darkness evoked response to induce swimming, and a similar range of DMSO doses (Christou et al., 2020). In this study, DMSO concentrations of 1% and 0.55% decreased the active swimming duration, which is consistent with our observations. Furthermore, treatment with DMSO concentrations as low as 0.01% have been shown to affect the expression of genes involved in metabolism, development and heat shock (Turner et al., 2012, Hallare et al., 2006). The results presented here, and available in the literature, suggest care should be taken when treating larval zebrafish with DMSO to enhance drug solubility with behavioural analysis as the end points, and highlights the need for proper controls.

With regard to the effects of CPT, after several optimisations on wild type zebrafish (**table 5.1 and figures 5.4 and 5.5**), 10 nM CPT treatment at 48 hpf was found to be optimum. However, not only did treatment with 10 nM CPT fail to decrease $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ swimming compared to $ATM^{+/+}$ controls, it failed to decrease swimming overall in any genotype compared to untreated zebrafish (**figure 5.6**). The reasons 10 nM CPT failed to elicit a decrease in motor function in $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish, when it had during optimisation in wild type zebrafish, may be varied and are not definitively known. Although optimisations were carried out in London Wild Type (LWT) zebrafish, and the background strain of the initial $ATM^{+/sh477}$ line was also LWT, the $ATM^{+/sh477}$ line used to create the larvae for this experiment had been outcrossed, and therefore, the genetic background consist of a number of strain differences. Not only has strain difference shown divergence in how they respond to behavioural analysis (de Esch et al., 2012, Christou et al., 2020), strain differences have also been reported in the response to DMSO, and although DMSO was used to enhance the solubility of the CPT in the media, it also enhances the permeability of the zebrafish (Christou et al., 2020, Kais et al., 2013b, Notman et al., 2006). Therefore, it is possible that differences in strain response to DMSO could affect uptake of CPT, as well as possible strain differences in response to CPT itself (de Esch et al., 2012, Pannia et al., 2014, Coe et al., 2009, Liu et al., 2014, Loucks and Carvan, 2004, Holden and Brown, 2018, Séguret et al., 2016, Audira et al., 2020). The effects of CPT on strain could be determined by repeating the above experiment with different strains housed in the aquarium facility.

5.3.1.3. Induction of DNA Damage by Treatment with Ionising Radiation

Investigations into the behaviour of ATM^{sh477/sh477} 5 dpf larvae after induction of DNA damage concur with earlier results in chapter 3, in that they are no more radiosensitive than their ATM^{+/+} siblings (**figure 5.7**). It was again considered that the effects of IR on ATM mutants may have been masked by maternally contributed ATM at this age. At 12 dpf it was thought that any effects of maternally contributed ATM would have been lost. That, coupled with the fact that the cerebellum is more developed at this age (Hamling et al., 2015), suggests that a previously masked phenotype may now be apparent. However, ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish exhibited no differences in behaviour compared to controls with and without treatment with IR at 12 dpf (**figure 5.10 and 5.11**). This again agrees with the data presented in **chapter 3**; that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish do not exhibit an increase in radiosensitivity. For a detailed discussion on radiosensitivity in the ATM^{sh477/sh477} model, see **chapter 3, section 3.3.2**.

Interestingly, treatment of all genotypes with IR did not significantly decrease the average distance travelled in the dark compared to un-irradiated controls; however, there was a significant difference between all genotypes in zebrafish treated with 2 Gy and 8 Gy (**figure 5.11 b**). It is possible that this slight change in behaviour represents a differential response to radiation dose at the molecular level. Repair of IR induced DNA damage, particularly at relatively low doses, appears to favour repair by NHEJ as a 'quick fix', while higher doses of IR promote HR (Jeggo et al., 2011, Johnson and Jasin, 2001, Vierstraete et al., 2017), This is thought to be linked to the higher complexity of the damage. Therefore, zebrafish treated with 2 Gy IR may repair DNA efficiently, primarily through NHEJ, with no stopping of the cell cycle, while zebrafish treated with 8 Gy may not be able to repair the more complex DNA lesions with NHEJ and switch to HR. HR requires stalling of the cell cycle at the G2/S phase and the decreased swimming compared to 2 Gy treated zebrafish may represent a slight developmental delay as a result. Furthermore, the developmental delay may be exacerbated by possible clearing of cells where the DNA damage is too great to repair.

5.3.2 Adult $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish do not Exhibit any Behavioural Defects that can be used as Therapeutic Target Readout

When the data is normalised for weight and length, 7 month old $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ fish exhibit a slight, but significant, decrease in their swimming endurance (**figure 5.12**). However, the exact cause of this decrease in endurance is not understood. It may be directly due to neurodegeneration, however as older $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish showed no statistically significant indicators of a behavioural phenotype in studies of their total motility (**figure 5.13**), and as preliminary investigations of the cerebellum showed no gross abnormalities (**figure 5.14**), a question remains on whether this decrease is linked to neurodegeneration. This decrease in swimming endurance in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish may be more reflective of a global loss of ATM, such as a decrease in energy production due to defects in glucose transportation and insulin regulation, or mitochondrial dysfunction (**chapter 1, section 1.2.3, 1.2.4.4 and section 1.2.4.5 c ii**). If the endurance decrease is caused by a metabolic defect, then this may account for the significant decrease observed in a swimming endurance assay over a total motility assay, as when investigating swimming endurance, the fish is stressed to exhaustion and would require a higher metabolic load.

Investigations into total motility of zebrafish (**figure 5.13**) were carried out at 10 months of age, and while there were no significant differences between genotypes, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish did exhibit a slight decrease. It should be noted that in this experiment, the increased size of the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish was not accounted for and data were not normalised to weight. Therefore, it is not known if this slight decrease is reflective of a behavioural phenotype, or if it is indicative of the increased weight. However, although the decrease in total motility observed in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish is not statistically significant, it is proportionally a greater decrease than observed in the statistically significant endurance assay ($U_{crit}/weight$ - ~22% decrease ($p=0.0098$), total motility - ~24% decrease in the average distance travelled over the course of 3 hours ($p=0.2685$), and ~33% decrease in duration of active swimming ($p=0.0685$). Interestingly a zebrafish model with complete ablation of Purkinje cell synaptic output exhibited a 50% decrease in distance travelled in a total motility test (Chang et al., 2020).

Based on the above adult swimming data, regardless of whether any observed differences in the behaviour of $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ adult zebrafish represent a true

behavioural phenotype, the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ model is not suitable for high throughput screening studies with movement analysis as a readout. This is because the variability of the data requires high numbers of adult wild type and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish of the same sex, which are difficult to obtain. The experiments above were carried out using all relevant and available zebrafish raised from 3 different cohorts from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross, each of 120 fish in total. Added to this, the requirement for male sex matching as all $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ are male, and the resultant skewing of sex ratios in $ATM^{+/+}$, causing a decrease in expected male $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish within the cohort (**chapter 3, figure 3.6**), mean that the time and cost required for further investigation become prohibitive. For the endurance assay and investigations into total motility to have 90% power, a minimum sample of size of 53 fish per group would be required (**appendix 5.12 and 5.13**). For the endurance assay and total motility assay to have an 80% power, a more feasible sample size of 30 and 41 fish per group, respectively, would be required (data not shown). In order to be able to raise these numbers of experimental zebrafish, progeny from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross would need to be genotyped at the larval stage, to facilitate the raising of only the genotypes of interest. This had not been done previously, as it would require the biopsy of the tail at a young age, which could differentially affect swimming. However, the facility has recently acquired a Zebrafish Embryonic Genotyper (ZEG) Unit (wFluidx), which allows extraction of genomic material from larval zebrafish while maintaining fish viability. Therefore, only the relevant $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish can be raised. Furthermore, to overcome the male to female sex skewing that appears to occur in $ATM^{+/+}$ zebrafish when raised in a tank alongside the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, each genotype could now be raised separately, and the $ATM^{+/+}$ tank supplemented with the easily distinguishable nacre fish to encourage a 50/50 sex ratio.

However, due to the increased size of aged $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish from neoplastic growth of the testes (**chapter 4**), even when the data has been normalised to account for the increased weight, and with an adequate sample size, there is no way to control for the different morphology within the experimental design. Differences in morphology have been shown to have an effect on zebrafish locomotion, particularly in the terms of measuring their swimming endurance, with differences in the morphology between males and females accounting for over 40% of the variability observed (Conradsen et al., 2016, Conradsen and McGuigan, 2015, Leris et al., 2013). Despite zebrafish in the above experiments being sex matched, aged

ATM^{sh477/s477} male zebrafish, even at 7 months, have a gross morphology more closely resembling a female at the same age. To overcome this morphological difference, zebrafish would need to be assayed at a younger age, before onset of the testicular neoplasm, at approximately 3-4 months. Nonetheless, this raises practical issues in performing the experimental assays, as zebrafish at this age can be relatively small compared to older adults, and the current swim tunnel apparatus is not suitable for very small fish. Furthermore, if the decrease in swimming is linked to an age associated neurodegenerative phenotype, it may likely not be present at a younger age.

5.3.4 Future Work and Characterisation of Neurodegeneration in the ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Model

5.3.4.1 Analysis of Larval and Juvenile Behaviour

The larval and juvenile behaviour of ATM^{sh477/sh477} has been relatively well characterised in the above experiments. We also considered additional analysis of zebrafish swimming with a fast capture camera, in order to determine whether changes in movement of the tail of ATM^{sh477/sh477} fish could be observed during swimming. However, this type of analysis is time consuming; using the available equipment, only 3 fish could be assayed every 2 hrs. This, coupled with the problem that the relevant genotypes to be assayed needed to be generated from an ATM^{+/sh477} in-cross, meant that only 50% of the fish assayed and data collected would be relevant. We could genotype embryos at 3 dpf and then use these for larval/juvenile swimming assays. Conventionally this would involve tail biopsy, however as this might impact on the way larvae swim, it should be avoided. As mentioned above, we recently obtained a ZEG, which allows non-invasive sampling of environmental DNA from 3 dpf embryos. This approach should make high speed imaging an achievable prospect.

There is also some evidence suggesting that zebrafish may not be an appropriate system to model ataxia. A transgenic zebrafish line, with tamoxifen-induced highly specific PC cell apoptosis has been reported (Weber et al., 2016). However, communications with the author indicate that after complete ablation of cerebellar PC, no gross swimming abnormalities were observed. Therefore, it may be possible that PC are not essential for functional free swimming in zebrafish larvae,

and even if ATM specific, loss of PC were to occur in the ATM^{sh477/sh477} model, it may not present as a swimming abnormality. Additionally, a transgenic zebrafish model of the dominant negative HCA SCA13, where PC specific expression of the pathogenic human Kcnc3a^{R335H} gene lead to PC cell death, reported no swimming defects but did report significant behavioural abnormalities of impaired eye moment, particularly saccades (Namikawa et al., 2019b). Eye movement abnormalities have long been associated with cerebellar degeneration in AT, particularly the presence of saccades and nystagmus (Tang and Shaikh, 2019). Therefore, while ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish do not exhibit any swimming abnormalities, further investigations into eye movement in this model may prove fruitful.

In addition to its role in the DDR, ATM is increasingly implicated in the regulation of oxidative stress and mitochondrial function (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.4 and section 1.2.4.5 b**). Therefore, ATM KO fish may show behavioural differences when challenged with oxidative stress or mitochondrial toxins. Changes in zebrafish behaviour can serve as an indicator of increased sensitivity to treatment with oxidising agents such as hydrogen peroxide and atrazine (Blahová et al., 2013), as they have done in this chapter to determine if there was increased sensitivity to DNA damage.

5.3.4.2 Investigation into Cerebellar Degeneration

Whether ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish exhibit a true age-related behavioural phenotype related to neurodegeneration is not clear. Nevertheless, there may still be pathological cerebellar changes linked to loss of ATM function. Our examinations into cerebellar morphology in adult ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish (**figure 5.14**) showed no gross morphological abnormalities in mutant fish. However, these studies were only preliminary.

It is essential for ongoing investigations that the cerebellum, and particularly PCs of ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish, are accurately imaged and quantified under basal and/or stress conditions. Attempts had been made to visualise and quantify the developing cerebellum in zebrafish larvae using whole mount immunofluorescence of the protein Parvalbumin7, which is highly expressed in zebrafish PC (Bae et al., 2009). However, no cerebellar staining was observed with this antibody (data not shown). Therefore, plans were made to cross the ATM^{+sh477} line with a transgenic PC

specific *Ca8* linked red fluorescent protein line (Tg(*ca8:FMA-TagRFP-2A-casp8ERT2*)bz11Tg), in order to visualise PC (Weber et al., 2016). However, due to a catastrophic incident in the aquarium in Germany where these transgenic fish were housed, there was a significant delay in being able to cross these two lines. The use of this RFP transgenic line over whole mount immunofluorescence has significant advantages, such as being more cost effective, time saving, and the ability to conduct live imaging. In addition to using these transgenic zebrafish to investigate cerebellar morphology, and to quantify PC number through development, this transgenic line has the ability to allow PC specific investigations after FACS analysis, for example to examine a number of parameters such as DNA damage, levels of oxidative stress, and mitochondrial number.

In this project, attempts to characterise the neuronal expression of the ATM protein in zebrafish were made using IHC and DAB staining with the zATM antibody (**chapter 3 and 4**) on FFPE tissue (data not shown). However, there was considerable background staining and therefore future work on this is required. Using fluorescence secondary antibodies with confocal microscopy may prove more fruitful in future work.

5.3.4.3 Continued Investigation into Compensation for Loss of ATM at the Protein Level

As ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish do not exhibit increased radiosensitivity in the experiments in this thesis, we hypothesised that there is compensation for loss of the ATM protein at the protein level (**see chapter 3, section 3.3.2.2 and section 5.2.1.3**). Our preliminary investigations showed that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish treated with an ATM kinase inhibitor appeared less sensitive to the effects of IR on behaviour compared to ATM^{+/+} that had also been treated with the inhibitor (**figure 5.9**). This suggests that there may be an alternative DDR pathway that compensates in the absence of ATM. This data is not definitive, and further investigated is warranted. For instance, the reported experiment could be repeated, this time using morphology and apoptosis as readouts of cell survival.

Similar studies could be carried out using a number of other ATM inhibitors, along with dose-response experiments. However, it should be noted that using different ATM inhibitors for these investigations might be problematic, as ATM

inhibitors can also inhibit other members of the PI3-PIKK family, chiefly ATR and DNA-PKcs, which are also proteins that are expected to be involved in the putative compensation. This is particularly true when these inhibitors are used at higher doses. Therefore, care needs to be taken when inhibiting ATM, not to inhibit other PI3-PIKK members that may be upregulated in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. To further strengthen this line of investigation and to mitigate off-target effects of chemical inhibition of ATM, attempts could be made to target the kinase domain by CRISPR/Cas9 and create an ATM kinase dead line. Creating a zebrafish kinase dead ATM model has considerable advantages over a mouse model, since zebrafish develop externally and could be studied even if the fish may die at a later stage. However, given the embryonic lethality observed in ATM kinase dead mice, and in zebrafish ATM morphants that are predicted to have loss of kinase activity (**chapter 3, section 3.3.2.3**), a stable ATM kinase dead model will also not be viable beyond the embryonic stage.

Chapter 6

Discussion

6.1 Summary of Key findings

One of the first tasks of validating $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish as a model of AT is determining whether it is a knockout model with loss of normal expression of a functional ATM protein, as seen in AT patients. It was hoped that the mutant ATM^{sh477} transcript would undergo NMD, however, this was not the case, as there was comparable expression of ATM mRNA in both $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish at the larval, juvenile and adult stages. Several attempts were made to quantify expression of the ATM protein between the two genotypes by western blot analysis, IHC and mass spectrometry. Nevertheless, detection of full-length ATM protein was not possible by western blot or mass spectrometry. IHC of $ATM^{+/+}$ testes with a new antibody, raised against the N-terminus of the zebrafish protein sequence before the predicted stop codon in mutant zebrafish, showed strong staining in cell types where ATM would be expected to be expressed. However, similar staining was also detected in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. Therefore, it is not clear if this was non-specific staining of other protein species present (as was evident by western blot), or if it was ATM specific staining of a possible truncated non-functional ATM protein in the mutant zebrafish testes. However, given that expression of the detected protein aligned with cell types where ATM would be expected to be expressed, and expression of the protein was lost in late spermatids and mature spermatozoa, as would be expected of ATM and has been observed in mouse models (Hamer et al., 2004), it is consistent with bona fide ATM expression. Furthermore, the finding that the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish all develop as male, indicating they undergo the same female to male sex reversal as other DDR mutant zebrafish, and that they exhibit stalled spermatogenic development, similar to other vertebrate models of AT, and AT patients, both indicate that the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ model is very likely to be an ATM knockout.

One of the most surprising results of characterisation of the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ model is that they do not appear to exhibit any increase in radiosensitivity. However, further investigation is required to fully understand whether there are any deficiencies in the somatic DDR. Preliminary data suggests that there may not be, as there was

no difference in expression in immunoglobulin mRNA transcripts between the genotypes, the production of which relies on the repair of ds breaks. Direct quantification of induction of the DDR by quantification of activation of γ H₂AX after treatment with ionising radiation gave inadequate insight, and it is difficult to form a definitive conclusion from the experiment as it could only be repeated once in the time available.

While the data are currently unclear for somatic DNA repair, our data strongly indicate that there are deficiencies in DDR repair in germ cells. As indicated above, adult male $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish have stalled spermatogenesis, and based on their testicular histology, similarities in other DDR zebrafish models that function in the same pathway, and rodent models of AT, this stalling of spermatogenesis is most probably due to a meiotic defect. The literature strongly suggests that this meiotic defect is due to failure to repair HR linked ds DNA breaks in the developing sperm cells. Furthermore, this spermatogenic failure appears to be the root cause of two other testicular phenotypes exhibited by $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish. The first of these is a strong female to male sex reversal. In other zebrafish DDR models this sex reversal has been attributed to failure of meiotic recombination in the developing ovary, resulting in p53 mediated cell death of the developing oocytes, and masculinisation of the gonads (Ye and Chen, 2020). The other secondary phenotype resulting from failed meiosis is the unchecked proliferation of Sertoli cells in maturing spermatocytes in the zebrafish testes, resulting in testicular neoplasia.

Analysis of larval and juvenile zebrafish behaviour showed no abnormalities in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish, suggesting that loss of ATM in zebrafish may not cause a neurological phenotype. Additionally, the same analysis after treatment with IR supported our findings that they do not exhibit any increase in their radiosensitivity. Analysis of adult swimming is not definitive, as the data indicated that there might be changes in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ swimming, particularly in endurance assays. However, this may not be linked to a neurological phenotype, as the changes in the fish morphology due to the testicular neoplasms cannot be ruled out as a cause of the behavioural abnormalities. Furthermore, preliminary investigations into cerebellar morphology in adult fish also indicate that there are no gross abnormalities.

Figure 6.1 summarises the key findings in the characterisation of the ATM^{sh477/sh477} model, and **table 6.1** compares the key findings and phenotypes to other vertebrate models of AT.

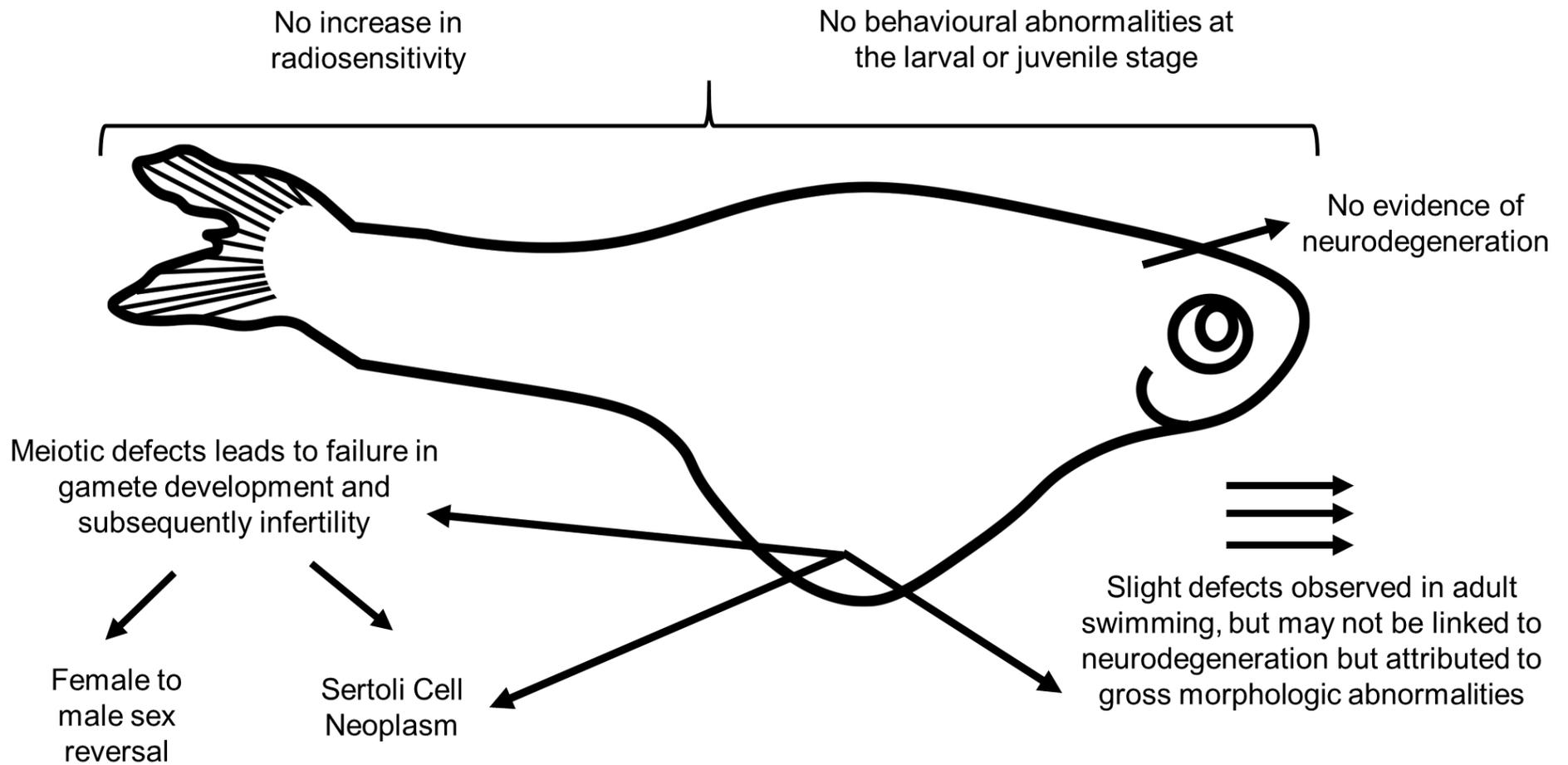


Figure 6.1 Summary of key findings in the characterisation of the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ model. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit no radiosensitivity, behavioural abnormalities at the larval or juvenile stages of development, or signs of neurodegeneration. They do, however, exhibit defects in germ cell development, which leads to a female to male sex reversal, and Sertoli cell neoplasm in the resultant adult males. Finally, $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish exhibit slight deficiencies in adult swimming, however, this is most likely a result of changes in gross morphology due to the testicular neoplasms.

Table 6.1 Comparison of key findings of the zebrafish ATM^{sh477/sh477} model and other vertebrate models of AT

	Pig	Rat	Mouse	Zebrafish	Notes/Further information
Radiosensitivity	✓	✓	✓	✗	Radiosensitivity analysis was not conducted on whole organism in pigs but in ATM deficient pig primary fibroblasts.
Deficiencies in activating the DDR	✓	✓	✓	IC	Further study is required but in our limited investigations no obvious deficiency was observed in ATM mutant zebrafish
Senescence/Premature Ageing	NR	NR	✓	IC	There was no increase in basal senescence observed in ATM ^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish. Differences were observed in juvenile zebrafish after induction of IR, however, more repeats are required to determine if the differences are statistically significant.
Infertility	✓	✓	✓	✓	Compete infertility was only observed in female pigs but male AT deficient pigs did exhibit reduced fertility and some spermatozoa defects.
Malignancies	✓	✓	✓	✗	Analysis by a veterinary pathologist revealed no malignancies in the liver or kidneys in histological sections of 12 month ATM mutant zebrafish.
Neuroinflammation	NR	✓	✓	NI	
Systemic Inflammation	NR	✓	✓	✗	Investigations of senescence characterised expression of proinflammatory genes IL1-β and IL6 in whole adult and juvenile zebrafish lysates under basal conditions, and no increase in expression was observed.
Major cerebellar defects	✓	✗	✗	✗	Preliminary investigations into cerebellar morphology showed no gross morphological defects. However, further study is required for full characterisation
Ocular Abnormalities	NR	✓	NR	NI	
Liver Defects	NR			NI	
Sensitivity to Oxidative Stress	NR	✓	✓	NI	
Telangiectasias	NR	✓	NR	✗	
Neurodegeneration	✓	✓	✗	✗	
Peripheral Neuron degeneration	NR	✓	✗	NI	
Locomotor Phenotype	✓	✓	✗	See notes	A small locomotor defect was observed in zebrafish, however it cannot be attributed to neurodegeneration.
Chromosomal Instability	NR	NR	✓	NI	
Immunological defects	✓	✓	✓	✗	
Growth Retardation	✓	✓	✓	✗	

NR- Not reported, NI-Not investigated, IC- Inconclusive (Beraldi et al., 2017, Beraldi et al., 2015, Quek et al., 2017a, Quek et al., 2017b, Barlow et al., 1996, Elson et al., 1996, Xu et al., 1996, Hartlova et al., 2015, McDonald et al., 2011).

6.2 Contribution of the ATM^{sh477/sh477} model

6.2.1 Limitations in the Characterisation of ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish

6.2.1.1 It has not been experimentally shown that ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish are a KO model

Despite many attempts, clear experimental evidence that the ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish are KO for the ATM protein was not achieved. Although much of the experimental data presented here strongly indicate that it is deficient for the ATM protein, the inability to definitely determine the status of the ATM protein in these zebrafish is one of the biggest weaknesses in our characterisation of the model. Nevertheless, if time had allowed, further avenues of investigation may have been carried out to mitigate this. These could include raising another antibody, this time to a smaller epitope at the N-terminal, a few amino acids long, where the denaturing nature of an SDS PAGE gel may not have as much an effect on antibody recognition. This may allow for detection of both a full-length protein and a truncated version if present, similar to what we have already attempted. Alternatively, a new antibody could also be raised to the ATM C-terminal in the hopes of detection of a full-length protein in ATM^{+/+} zebrafish lysates, and of observing no expression in mutant lysates. Interestingly, in the investigations already carried out, there was some evidence of a truncated protein species being present in mutant lysates, as three bands were detected between 20-37 KDa by western blot (**figure 3.5**). In the future, purification and analysis of these bands by mass spectrometry may help determine if they represent truncated ATM protein.

6.2.1.2 Characterisation of the DDR at the Whole Larval/Adult Level

For the most part, characterisation of the DDR in the ATM^{sh477/sh477} model has been conducted in whole larvae or whole adult zebrafish. However, this may obscure cell specific effects. We have already seen this be the case in adult tissue where loss of ATM does not appear to have an effect on somatic cells but has an acute effect on developing gametes. The resultant neoplasia in the testes also contributes an uneven tissue/cell contribution to samples that were generated from whole adult zebrafish. This may be compounded when analysing extracts from larval zebrafish, as not only may cell specific effects be missed, but also, in order to generate enough sample for analysis, larvae need to be pooled. This pooling of larvae may obscure any larvae that

are outliers. Most adult tissue should provide enough sample for RNA or protein analysis. In future, discrete tissues should first be isolated before analysis. While not much can be done to mitigate the need to pool larvae to ensure enough sample is gathered, for RT-qPCR or western blot analyses, microscopy approaches such as *in situ* hybridisation and immunofluorescence could be utilised.

6.2.1.3 Radiosensitivity and the DDR has not been Investigated in Adult Zebrafish

While we characterised the radiosensitivity of larval zebrafish and began to define their response to IR, we have not done so in adult zebrafish. This is important, as fully differentiated tissues may have differing responses and mechanisms of DDR. However, due to the parameters of the project licence and the licencing of procedure rooms for schedule 1 of zebrafish under ASPA 1986, the irradiation of adult zebrafish was prohibited. The project licence has now been amended, and as the relevant rooms in the facility are now authorised for schedule 1 culling, experiments of this nature can proceed in the future.

6.2.1.4 Female to Male Sex Reversal in ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Limits the Numbers of Fish Available for Experimentation

The female to male sex skew observed in ATM mutants was quite problematic for experimental design. As all ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish were male, it was necessary that all control ATM^{+/+} zebrafish also be male. However, the ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{+/sh477} zebrafish raised in the same tank as the mutants appeared to exhibit sex skewing towards female. It is not known whether this skewing is due to chance, a preference in the strain used, or if it occurs due to compensation for the all-male mutants. Although this female to male sex reversal is also exhibited by Brca2 mutant zebrafish produced from a heterozygous in-cross, and in 12 Fanconi Anaemia associated genes, wild type and heterozygous progeny do not experience female sex skewing as describe here (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011, Shive et al., 2010, Ramanagoudr-Bhojappa et al., 2018). There is no data available on sex ratios of other genotypes from a Rad51 heterozygous incross (Botthof et al., 2017). This has drastically reduced the numbers of control fish available, reducing the power of experiments. However, we have recently acquired a

Zebrafish Embryonic Genotyper ZEG (Lambert et al., 2018), which will allow genotyping of larval zebrafish while maintaining viability. Therefore, $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish can now be raised separately, which in theory should prevent the sex skewing of $ATM^{+/+}$ fish, and permit generation of greater numbers of wild type males as $ATM^{+/sh477}$ zebrafish need not be raised alongside them.

6.2.1.5 Gross Morphological Changes in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish Make Characterisation of their Adult Swimming Ambiguous

While $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larval and juvenile swimming has been well characterised under basal and stress conditions (treatment with IR), it was not formally investigated in adult stages. So the results leave some ambiguity as to whether there is a behavioural phenotype or not, and if there is a behavioural defect, whether it is linked to neurodegeneration. The reasons for lack of analysis are twofold. First, we had difficulty in generating adequate numbers of male $ATM^{+/+}$ control zebrafish due to the sex reversal as outlined in the section above. Second, we were unable to mitigate for the Sertoli cell neoplasia in adult mutant fish. Further analysis of behaviour in these fish would have likely proved futile, as any discrepancies observed in $ATM^{sh477/h477}$ swimming compared to $ATM^{+/+}$ could be attributed to gross morphological differences in the adult fish. There were a number of outliers in the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ cohort during analysis of critical swimming velocity (**figure 5.12**). It was considered that the Sertoli neoplasia had become so pronounced in this fish that it caused more difficulty in continued swimming or perhaps the fish was in pain. However, although the relative size of the neoplasia were not measured in these fish, there was no major differences in their weight (data not shown) and thus the reason for their poor performance is unexplained. To circumvent the challenges in adult behavioural analysis caused by the increase testes size, analysis could be performed at a much younger age, before the testicular neoplasms grow to the extent that the gross morphology of fish is significantly changed. However, as neurodegeneration and a locomotor phenotype in AT is age related, analysis at a younger age may miss any abnormalities caused by neurodegeneration.

It was not possible to accurately control for the increased size, weight and altered morphology in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish during the adult behavioural analysis

outlined in **chapter 5**. However, this may be possible in future by inducing transient ablation of *dnd* by MO KD. The *dnd* gene regulates primordial germ cell development in zebrafish. Transient KD of this gene by injection of a *dnd* MO in early embryogenesis has been shown to completely ablate germ cells, and cause female to male sex reversal and atrophied testes in the adult fish at 6 months (Kobayashi et al., 2017, Slanchev et al., 2005, Siegfried and Nüsslein-Volhard, 2008). Therefore, if the Sertoli cell proliferation observed in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish is a secondary phenotype caused by the Sertoli cells' response to incomplete spermatogenesis, then following the ablation of germ cells by *dnd* KD in the progeny from an $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross, $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish would be expected to have a comparable testicular phenotype. Furthermore, injection of wild type fish with the *dnd* morpholino should result in a similar female to male sex reversal to that which is observed in the mutants, leaving all $ATM^{+/+}$ male and available for sex matched experiments. However, there is a caveat to the use of a *dnd* morpholino in this way. While *dnd* injected zebrafish exhibit atrophied testes at 6 months (Slanchev et al., 2005), at 18 months they exhibit similar neoplastic growth as ATM and Brca2 mutants (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011) (**see chapter 4**). However, fish with testicular neoplasm should still be eligible for behavioural analysis, as after *dnd* KD, both $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish would be expected to exhibit them to the same extent and therefore, aged matched fish would still be comparable. Conversely, a germ cell transplant could be performed on the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ at an appropriate point in development, and while the other systems in the fish will remain ATM deficient, the testis germ cells should develop as normal without the sex reversal and without the Sertoli cell neoplasia.

6.2.1.6 The Response of $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish to Oxidative Stress has not been Characterised

As ATM is primarily considered a master regulator of the DDR (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.2**), investigations contained within this thesis mainly focus on the loss of ATM signalling in the context of the DDR. However, emerging evidence in the last 10 years suggests that ATM is a regulator of oxidative stress as much as it regulates the DDR (**see chapter 1, section 1.2.3**). Therefore, before the model can be considered to be exhaustively characterised, the effects of oxidative stress on $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish

should be investigated. There had been the intention to perform mitochondrial complex assays on zebrafish lysates; however, these required the use of cyanide, the use of which needed training and authorisation by the central University Health and Safety committee. Due to the disruptions caused by the COVID19 pandemic, this was not possible.

6.2.2 The Sex Reversal Exhibited by $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Zebrafish has the Potential to be Exploited as an Assay to Determine Approaches to Restore ATM Activity

One of the aims of the project was to determine whether the $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ model could be utilised in the screening of therapeutic targets for the return of the ATM pathway. The sex reversal exhibited by $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish may present an avenue for this. $Brca2^{-/-}$ zebrafish exhibit this female to male sex reversal, however, they have the potential to develop as female when p53 expression has been ablated, following which $brca2^{-/-}$ zebrafish subsequently develop as 50% male, 50% female. Therefore, in theory $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish may exhibit the same potential. A prospective assay could involve raising $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish while treating them with potential therapies. After 40 dpf, when gonad determination is cemented (Ye and Chen, 2020), zebrafish could be analysed by RT-qPCR for expression of ovary associated genes such as *cyp19a1a* (Wang and Orban, 2007, Yin et al., 2017), *foxl2* (Yin et al., 2017, Yang et al., 2017), and *nanos2* and *nanos3* (Beer and Draper, 2013, Cao et al., 2019), as well as testes associated genes such as *sox9a* (Jørgensen et al., 2008), *dmrt1* (Webster et al., 2017) and *amh* (Lin et al., 2017). Validation of resultant sex ratios could also be confirmed by histological analysis on a subset of the treated fish. Furthermore, if investigated and confirmed that p53 ablation can rescue the sex reversal in ATM mutant zebrafish, similarly to the way it does in $brca2^{-/-}$ fish, crossing of the $ATM^{+/sh477}$ line to p53 mutants could provide a valuable positive control.

6.2.3 Validity of Modelling DDR Disorders in Zebrafish

6.2.3.1 Comparison of Zebrafish DDR Mutants

The results that $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish do not exhibit any increase in radiosensitivity raises the question of whether zebrafish are an adequate model for DDR disorders, or

whether the repair mechanism between them and mammals have diverged too much. Other zebrafish KO models of DDR genes do exhibit phenotypes consistent with loss of that gene. For example, *Brca2* deficient zebrafish exhibit chromosomal instability and sensitivity to DNA damaging agents, with a slower growth rate due to an increase in apoptotic cells (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). *Rad51* KO zebrafish, in which Fanconi Anaemia was modelled, similarly exhibit chromosomal instability and sensitivity to DNA damaging agents, with a drastically increased sensitivity to IR. They also recapitulate many of the features of Fanconi Anaemia, such as growth retardation, microphthalmia, kidney hypocellularity and a decrease in hematopoiesis (Botthof et al., 2017). Furthermore, KO of 11 other Fanconi Anaemia associated genes in zebrafish (*ancd1*, *fancd2*, *fanci*, *fancj*, *fancn*, *fancp*, *fanct*, *fancb*, *fanco*, *fanca* and *fancq*) also exhibit sensitivity to DNA damaging agents. These findings support the idea that zebrafish are a valid model for modelling DDR associated disorders. However, KO zebrafish for *tdp1*, which was created to model the DDR associated ataxia SCAN1, do not exhibit any increase in DNA damage sensitivity, nor is the protein required for Top1CC repair in zebrafish, as it is in humans (Zaksauskaite et al., 2021). This and the lack of radiosensitivity and apparently normal DDR in ATM zebrafish presented here, indicates that not all DDR associated disorders may be suitable for modelling in zebrafish. A comparison of all phenotypes presented by zebrafish DDR mutants is detailed in **table.6.2**.

Table 6.2 Comparison of phenotypes of all DDR mutant zebrafish

	Radiosensitivity or Sensitivity to DNA damaging agents	F>M Sex Skew	Stalled gametogenesises or other Infertility	Testicular Neoplasia	Growth Retardation	Reduced Survival	Behavioural Defects	Other
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<i>atm</i>	X	✓	✓	✓	X	X	X	
<i>tdp1</i>	Increased sensitivity in adults	X	X	X	X	X	Mild Adult defects	
<i>brca2/fancd1</i>	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	X	NR	
<i>rad51/fanco</i>	✓	✓	✓	*See Note	✓	X	NR	Microphthalmia kidney hypocellularity defective heamatopoises Increased Inflammation
<i>fanca</i>	✓	X	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fancb</i>	UT	X	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fance</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fancc</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fancd2</i>	✓	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fance</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fancf</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fancg</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fanci</i>	✓	✓	X	X	X	X	NR	
<i>fancj/brip1</i>	UT	✓	✓	X	X	X	NR	

<i>fanci</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR
<i>fancm</i>	UT	✓	X	X	X	X	NR
<i>fancn/palb2</i>	✓	✓	X	X	X	X	NR
<i>fancp/slx4</i>	✓	✓	X	X	✓	✓	NR
<i>fancq/ercc4</i>	UT		X	X	✓	✓	NR
<i>fancu/ube2t</i>	✓	✓	X	X	✓	✓	NR
<i>faap100</i>	UT		X	X	✓	✓	NR
<i>faap24</i>	UT		X	X	✓	✓	NR

6.2.3.2 Conservation on DDR genes in Zebrafish

One of the key factors in determining whether zebrafish is a suitable model for a DDR associated disorder may be whether the gene in question has a highly conserved sequence identity between zebrafish and humans, as a divergence in sequence may indicate a divergence in function. For example, complete ablation of rad51 protein expression in zebrafish appears to recapitulate the phenotype of rad51 associated Fanconi Anaemia patients well (Botthof et al., 2017), and from a protein-protein blast sequence alignment (Altschul et al., 1997), the zebrafish rad51 protein shares a total sequence identity of 84% with the human protein (**appendix 6.1 a**), which rises to a 96% sequence identity (**appendix 6.1 b**) in the core functional domain, which is essential for rad51 activity (Buchhop et al., 1997). This is similar for brca2 mutants, in that they also exhibit phenotypes consistent with loss of brca2 activity and the functional domains between human and zebrafish brca2 are well conserved (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011).

In contrast, zebrafish ATM merely shares 54% sequence identity with the human protein (**appendix 6.2 a**), which only rises to 64% in the TAN domain (**appendix 6.2 b**). Additionally, in the HEAT repeats where most protein-protein interactions occur (**chapter 1, section 1.2.2**), the sequence identity drops as low as 46% (**appendix 6.2 c**). However, the kinase and FATC domains between zebrafish and human ATM share 84% and 94% sequence identity, respectively (**appendix 6.2 e and f**), indicating that the functions of these domains are highly conserved. Similarly to ATM^{sh477/sh477} mutants, zebrafish TDP1 mutants do not recapitulate the SCAN1 phenotype well (Zaksauskaite et al., 2021). The zebrafish TDP1 protein shares a total sequence identity of 55% with the human protein (**appendix 6.3 a**). Essential residues for DNA binding are conserved between the two orthologues (**appendix 6.3 a, green**), as well as the active site residues (**appendix 6.3 a, yellow and pink**), however the N-terminal regulatory domain which is essential for localisations to the nucleus, as well as protein-protein binding, only shares 30% sequence identity (**appendix 6.3 b**) (Kawale and Povirk, 2018). Therefore, there may be a correlation between how well the protein sequence of a particular DDR gene is conserved in zebrafish and humans respectively, and how well zebrafish will recapitulate loss of this gene.

As there is suggestion that ATR and DNA-PKcs can compensate for loss of ATM in cellular and mouse models of AT (**see chapter 3 section 3.3.2.2**), and as we propose that this may also be the case in the Zebrafish model, it is important to consider whether these proteins are also well conserved in zebrafish in both sequence and function. The Zebrafish and human ATR proteins share a relatively high level of sequence identity (65%), particularly at the N-terminal (**appendix 6.4**). There is not much known about the function of ATR in zebrafish, as there has only been one report of a MO KD model. Mutations in this gene in humans cause the genetic disorder Seckel syndrome 1, patients exhibit growth retardation, microcephaly, mental incapacitation and bird like features {O'Driscoll, 2003, A splicing mutation affecting expression of ataxia-telangiectasia and Rad3-related protein (ATR) results in Seckel syndrome}. Interestingly, the ATR MO KD did exhibit decrease head and eye size, along with a reduction of anterior neural structures and overall growth retardation (Stiff et al., 2016), suggesting that the function of ATR may be well conserved between humans and zebrafish. While zebrafish do have a DNA-PKcs homolog, no studies of its function in zebrafish has so far been carried out. However, a protein-protein blast alignment of the human and zebrafish sequences shows that they share a 58% sequence identity (**appendix 6.5**).

6.2.3.3 Considerations When Creating Zebrafish Models of DDR Disorders

Another aspect of modelling DDR associated disorders in zebrafish is the type of mutation introduced to the gene of interest. As already discussed in **chapter 3 section 3.3.2.2** a mouse model of AT that expresses a full-length but kinase dead ATM protein has a much more severe phenotype than a KO model of the disease (Yamamoto et al., 2012b, Daniel et al., 2012). This has been attributed to a dominant negative effect of the kinase dead protein that prevents any compensatory pathways from being activated. We have observed similarities in the zebrafish model of AT. Our stable presumed KO of the ATM protein exhibits a far milder phenotype compared to the morpholino KD that is predicted to act as a kinase dead morphant (**see chapter 3, section 3.3.2.3 for full discussion**). This may also explain why the *brca2*^{-/-} zebrafish

exhibits radiosensitivity and the ATM^{sh477/sh477} does not, as the *brac2* mutant zebrafish have an in frame deletion of exon 11 which disrupts key functional domains in the protein but is still predicted to produce a near full length protein (Rodríguez-Marí et al., 2011). Therefore, there is the possibility that the severity of the phenotype exhibited by these fish may also be attributed to a dominant negative effect of a present but non-functional *brca2* protein. Consequently, when making a DDR mutant zebrafish to model a particular disease, the type of mutation introduced into the gene of interest should be carefully considered. For example, while the literature suggests that a kinase dead ATM mutant zebrafish may have a more severe phenotype compared to a KO, it does not recapitulate what happens in the human disease, as there have been no homozygous kinase dead mutations reported in patients. Therefore, studying a zebrafish kinase dead mutant as a model of AT in patients may not exhibit the same phenotype at the molecular level, and may obscure pathways that are at play in the human disease.

6.2.4 Validity of Modelling Hereditary Cerebellar Ataxia Disorders in Zebrafish

With the exception of the pig, no AT model has thus far has been able to recapitulate the neurodegenerative or locomotor phenotype of AT patients. Therefore, it was hoped that this could be achieved in the zebrafish model. However, due to the obvious differences in movement on land versus aquatic vertebrates, it was unclear if ataxia could be modelled in fish. As hereditary cerebellar ataxias can arise as a result of disruption of many different genes (**see appendix 1.1**) in both shared and divergent pathways (**see table 1.2**), the suitability of zebrafish as a model for hereditary ataxias will depend on the pathway that is disrupted.

Exactly what ataxia would look like in zebrafish is unclear, and the behavioural analyses carried out in this thesis are based on behavioural assays already in use in our facility. Therefore, they may not be optimum for detection of ataxia if it is present. Despite divergent genes and pathways, all hereditary cerebellar ataxias share loss of cerebellar PCs. Recently a tamoxifen inducible loss of PC transgenic line (Weber et al., 2016), as well as an inducible PC synaptic transmission silencer line (Chang et al., 2020) have been reported. While no behavioural data have been reported on the

tamoxifen inducible loss of PC cell line, silencing of PC synaptic transmission has shown abnormal swimming with episodes of decreased speeds compared to controls (Chang et al., 2020). This indicates that PC dysfunction gives a quantifiable swimming phenotype in zebrafish, and behavioural analysis could potentially be used as a readout of severity. Comprehensive behavioural analysis of these two published models could provide both a road map for appropriate behavioural assays to be carried out in future models of cerebellar ataxia in zebrafish and a valuable positive control for comparison.

6.2.5 Other Uses for the ATM^{sh477/sh477} Zebrafish Model

While the ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish model may not recapitulate key aspects of AT pathology, it still may be used in other areas of study. The testicular neoplasms exhibited by ATM mutant zebrafish due to the over proliferation of Sertoli cells has the potential to be used as a model for Sertoli cell tumours in human testes. However, it should be noted that Sertoli cell tumours in humans are exceedingly rare, with only a handful of cases being reported (Chang et al., 2020, Anderson, 1995, Ishida et al., 2013, Giglio et al., 2003, Esber et al., 2012, Brunocilla et al., 2012, Gourgari et al., 2012).

6.3 Future work

Additional work may be required to facilitate publication of the results in this thesis. First, further characterisation of the DDR in ATM^{sh477/sh477} is needed. This should entail a time course experiment of H₂AX activation and foci resolution, along with Rad51 foci, after induction of IR at a number of doses, by confocal microscopy. Second, based on our data and the literature, we have inferred that ATM^{sh477/sh477} spermatogenesis is stalled in meiosis. However, we have not experimentally shown it. Spy3 is an integral member of the synaptonemal complex, and immunostaining of this protein and characterisation of its localisation in developing spermatocytes can help stage meiosis. Therefore, ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes should be immunostained with an antibody to the protein and again analysed by confocal microscopy to confirm that there is a meiotic

defect. Finally, while there has been considerable analysis of ATM mutant zebrafish behaviour, the actual status of PCs in these fish has not been investigated. We had intended to investigate this using a RFP PC specific reporter line imported from Germany. However, due a catastrophic event in their home aquarium, receipt of these fish was delayed by nearly two years, and experiments with them were further hampered by the COVID-19 pandemic. However, analysis and quantification of PC development in $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ at the same ages that the behavioural analysis was carried out would provide valuable complimentary data to support the observation that the larvae swam normally.

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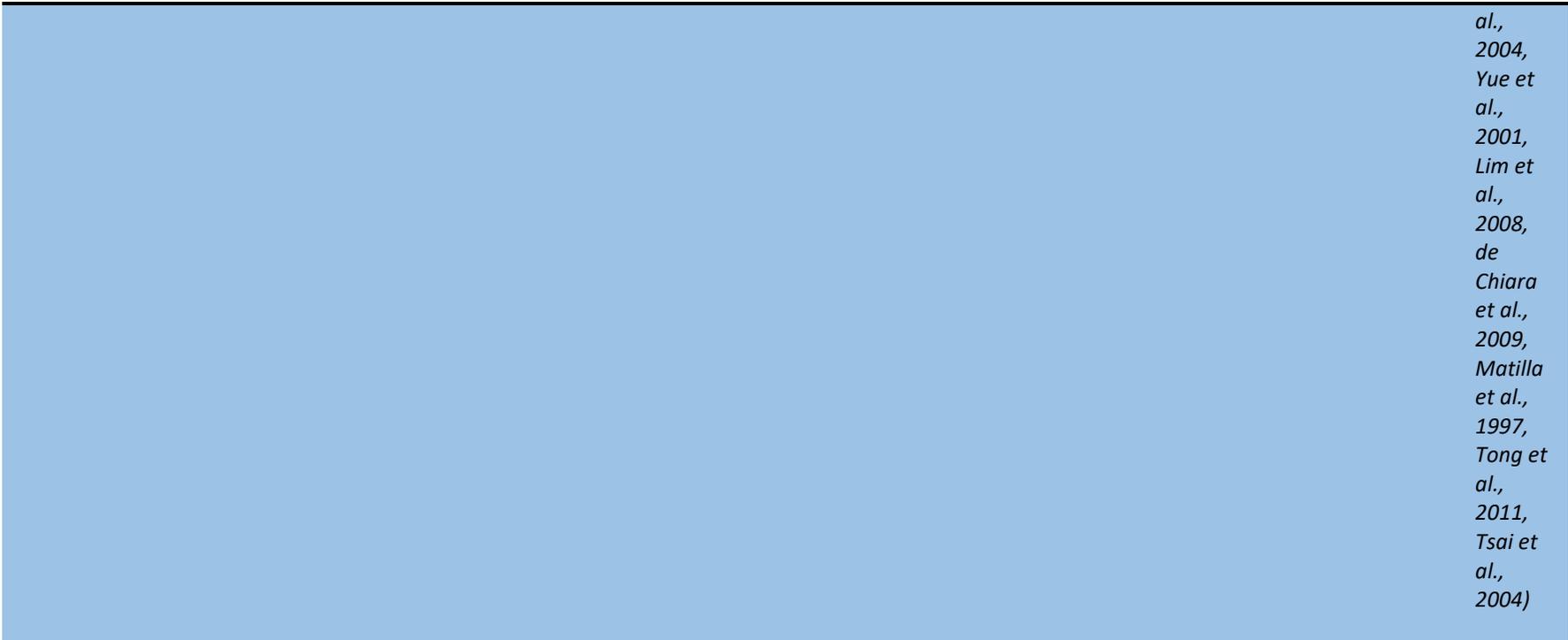
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Appendix 1

Appendix 1.1 Summary table of hereditary ataxias

PolyQ Disorders						
Ataxia	Genomic Locus	Protein	Protein Function	Threshold repeat no.	Neurodegenerative Pathways	Sources
SCA1 (Spinocerebellar Ataxia)	6p22.3	Ataxin-1	1. Co transcriptional activator and repressor 2. RNA Splicing protein	>39		(Orr et al., 1993, Banfi et al., 1994, Servadio et al., 1995, Zuhlke et al., 2002, Robitaille et al., 1995, de Chiara et al., 2003, Goold et al., 2007, Chen et



*al.,
2004,
Yue et
al.,
2001,
Lim et
al.,
2008,
de
Chiara
et al.,
2009,
Matilla
et al.,
1997,
Tong et
al.,
2011,
Tsai et
al.,
2004)*

[SCA2](#)

12q24.12

Ataxin-2

Transcriptional Regulator

>31
*Note there is an
association of repeat
length >29 with
amyotrophic lateral
sclerosis*

*(Eto et
al.,
1990,
Babovic
-
Vuksan
ovic et
al.,
1998,
Ralser
et al.,
2005,
Satterfi
eld and
Pallanck*

, 2006,
Hallen
et al.,
2011)

SCA3 (Machado-Joseph Disease)	14q32.12	Ataxin-3	<p>1. Thought to function as a transcriptional repressor by binding to proteins such as TAFII130, CBP, HDAC3 AND HDAC6.</p> <p>2. Ataxin-3 functions as a positive regulator of stress response proteins</p> <p>3. May also function in some DNA repair pathways</p>	>44 Note that incomplete penetrance is associated with a repeat number between 45-51	the expanded protein is thought to upregulate inflammatory reactions	(Li et al., 2009, Buttner et al., 1998, Takiyama et al., 1993, St George-Hyslop et al., 1994, Schols et al., 1995, Shimohata et al., 2000, Takahashi et al., 2001, McCampbell et al., 2000, Chai et al., 2002, Evert et
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					al., 2006a, Wang et al., 2000, Evert et al., 2003, Evert et al., 2006b, Araujo et al., 2011)
SCA6	19p13.13	CACNA1A	Subunit of voltage-dependent calcium channel	>18	(Li et al., 2009, Zhuchenko et al., 1997, Gomez et al., 1997, Ishikawa et al., 1997)
SCA7	3p14.1	Ataxin-7	1. Nuclear Ataxin-7 acts as a transcription factor as part of a number of complexes a) TATA-binding protein-free TAF complex (TFTC) b) acetyltransferase complex (STAGA) c) PCAF/GCN5 complex	>38	(Benomar et al., 1995, David et al., 1996, Lindblad et al., 1996,

2. Cytosolic Ataxin-7
functions as a
microtubule stabilizer

David et al., 1997, Harding, 1982, Wieczorok et al., 1998, Brand et al., 1999, Martinez et al., 1998, Ogryzko et al., 1998, Cancel et al., 2000, Lindenberg et al., 2000, Nakamura et al., 2012)

[SCA17](#)

6q27

TATA-binding protein

Binds to the TATA box upstream of the transcription start site

>44

(Nakamura et al., 2001, Koide et al., 1999)

SCA8/ ATAXIN8OS	13q21	Ataxin-8	Unknown	107-127	ATAXIN8OS (SCA8 is caused by a CAG repeat, however ATAXIN8OS is caused by the transcription of a CTG repeat in the same genomic locus on the opposite strand) (bidirectional transcription	(Ikeda et al., 2000, Ito et al., 2006, Koob et al., 1999, Daughters et al., 2009)
DRPLA (Dentatorubral-Pallidol Lysian Atrophy)	12p13.31	Atrophin-1	Transcriptional co-repressor	>23		(Kuwano et al., 1996, Nagafuchi et al., 1994, Burke et al., 1994, Zhang et al., 2002, Wang et al., 2006, Shen et al., 2007, Wood et al., 2000)

<i>Intronic Repeat Ataxias</i>						
<i>Ataxia</i>	<i>Genomic Locus</i>	<i>Protein</i>	<i>Protein Function</i>	<i>Repeat Expansion</i>	<i>Neurodegenerative Pathways</i>	<i>Sources</i>
<u>SCA10</u>	22q13.31	ATXN-10	Unknown	ATTCT >400 <i>Although an affected individual with 280 repeats has been reported</i>		(Alonso et al., 2006, Grewal et al., 1998, Matsuu ra et al., 1999, Zu et al., 1999)
<u>SCA12</u>	5q32	Neuronal specific subunit of the protein phosphatase PP2A	Serine/Theronine phosphatase that has been implicated in gene transcription and cell growth and division	>51 CAG repeats <i>Although the nucleotide sequence code for a PolyQ tract this is not regarded a PolyQ disorder as the expansion is located upstream of the transcription start site and not normally transcribed</i>		(Bahl et al., 2005, Holmes et al., 1999, Mayer et al., 1991, Lin et al., 2010)
<u>SCA31</u>	16q21 (Note that the locus is the same as SCA4 but disorders differ in their phenotype)	BEAN Note a homozygous mutation has been reported that encompassse	Unknown	Pre-sequence of TCAC followed by either (TGGAA)n (TAGAA)n (TAAAA)n		(Nagao ka et al., 2000, Li et al., 2003, Owada et al.,

			<i>s the TK2 gene on the OS</i>			2005, Amino et al., 2007, Ohata et al., 2006, Sato et al., 2009)
SCA36	20p13	NOP56	<i>Subunit of box C/D small nucleolar ribonucleoprotein complexes that function in RNA processing</i>	650-2500 GGCCTG		(Kobayashi et al., 2011, Garcia-Murias et al., 2012, Gautier et al., 1997)
Friedreich Ataxia	9q21.11	FXN	<i>Mitochondrial iron chaperone</i>	GAA >70 <i>However point mutations have also been described for this gene and account for approx 2% of Friedreich Ataxias</i>		(Schols et al., 2000, Mallaret et al., 2014, Chamberlain et al., 1988, Fujita et al., 1989, Delatycki et al., 1999,

Schmucker et al., 2008, Campuzano et al., 1996)

Dominantly Inherited Ataxias with Conventional Mutations

<i>Ataxia</i>	<i>Genomic Locus</i>	<i>Gene</i>	<i>Mutation</i>	<i>Protein</i>	<i>Protein Function</i>	<i>Neurodegenerative Pathways</i>	<i>Sources</i>
SCA5 (See also SCAR14)	11q13.2	SPTBN2	SCA5 is caused by dominant heterozygous mutations. These have been reported to be in frame deletions and missense mutations (Note repeat expansion of the same genomic locus is associated with SCAR14) The missense R480W mutation is associated with infantile onset	β -spectrin, non-erythrocytic 2	Cytoplasmic membrane stabiliser		(Jacob et al., 2013, Parolin Schnekenberg et al., 2015, Burk et al., 2004, Ranum et al., 1994, Ikeda et al., 2006, Jackson et al., 2001, Clarkson et al., 2014)

SCA11	15q15.2	TTBK2	Currently two mutations have been described in this gene. Insertion of an adenosine at 1329 and a deletion of GA leading to a frameshift mutation in exon 13	tau tubulin kinase-2	Protein Kinases known to phosphorylate tau and tubulin	(Houlde n et al., 2007, Worth et al., 1999)
SCA13	19q13.33	KCNC3	SCA13 is inherited in a heterozygous fashion and reported mutations result in a gain of function of or dominant negative protein product. The most common allelic variants reported are R420H , F448L , R420H , T428I	KCNC3	Voltage gated K ⁺ channel	(Herma n-Bert et al., 2000, Waters et al., 2005, Pyle et al., 2015, Parolin Schneke nberg et al., 2015, Ghansh ani et al., 1992, Haas et al., 1993, Figuero a et al., 2010, Figuero a et al., 2011)
SCA14	19q13.42	PRKCG	Multiple mutations associated with SCA14	Protein Kinase C, Gamma	Key isoform of protein kinase C found in PC	(Asai et al.,

locus have been reported and are generally autosomal dominant although an [autosomal recessive mutations](#) have been reported

2009, Yamashita et al., 2000, Brkanac et al., 2002, Chen et al., 2003a, Morita et al., 2006, van de Warrenburg et al., 2003, Johnson et al., 1988)

<p>SCA15/16 (SCA29 – also mutation in this locus and differs from SCA15 with an juvenile onset)</p>	<p>3p26.1 Note: Mutations in this sometimes include the SUMF1 gene but these mutations were found not to be causative of SCA15</p>	<p>ITPR1</p>	<p>SCA15 appears to be caused by haploinsufficiency due to large deletions in the ITPR1 gene</p>	<p>inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate (IP3) receptor</p>	<p>IP3-gated calcium channel highly expressed in PC</p>	<p>(Storey et al., 2001, Knight et al., 2003, van de Leemput et al., 2007, Hara et al., 2004, Matsumoto et</p>
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						<i>al., 1996, Nucifora et al., 1995, Iwaki et al., 2008, Hara et al., 2008)</i>
SCA18 (SMNA)	7q22-q32	IFRD1 (candidate gene)	<i>An I172V is thought to be the causative mutation as isoleucine is well conserved. However, this is still debated as the mutated valine is also conserved across elephants, zebrafish and chicken.</i>	<i>interferon-related developmental regulator</i>	<i>histone deacetylase-dependent transcriptional coregulator</i>	<i>Brkanac et al., 2002b, Brkanac et al., 2009, Buanne et al., 1998)</i>
SCA19/S CA22	1p13.2	KCND3	<i>Most reported mutations are point mutations leading to missense proteins but deletions have also been reported. As SCA19 is dominantly inherited that these mutations are antimorphic but this has yet to be shown</i>	<i>Kv4.3</i>	<i>alpha subunit of the Shal family of A-type voltage-gated potassium channels</i>	<i>(Duarri et al., 2012, Chung et al., 2003, Verbeek et al., 2002, Schelhas et al., 2004, Kong et al., 1998, Isbrandt et al.,</i>

						2000, Dixon et al., 1996, Postma et al., 2000, Lee et al., 2012)
SCA21	1p36.33	TMEM240	The disorder is transmitted in an autosomal dominant fashion with some anticipation observed. Observed mutation are generally missense however no functional studies have yet been carried out.	TMEM240	Transmembrane protein with unknown function	(Devos et al., 2001, Delplanque et al., 2014)
SCA23	20p13	PDYN	Affected individuals are heterozygous for the mutant allele of which 4 variants have been reported, R138S , R215C , L211S , R212W	Prodynorphin	Synaptic transmission	(Bakalkin et al., 2010, Verbeek et al., 2004, Horikawa et al., 1983, Litt et al., 1988)
SCA26	19p13.3	EEF2	To date one heterozygous mutation has been reported in the gene, P596H	Eukaryotic translation elongation factor 2	Required for translocation during protein synthesis	(Yu et al., 2005, Hekman et al.,

						2012, Kaneda et al., 1987)
SCA27	13q33.1	FGF14	Reported mutations include a point mutation of F145S and 487delA resulting in a truncated protein	fibroblast growth factor-14	Growth factor in expressed during neuronal development	(van Swieten et al., 2003, Dalski et al., 2005, Smallwood et al., 1996)
SCA28	13q33.1	AFG3L2	Heterozygous mutation that have been reported to be dominant negative or loss of function leading to haploinsufficiency Note that a loss of function homozygous mutations cause SPAX5	ATPase family gene 3-like 2	Catalytic subunit the mitochondrial metalloprotease which functions in degradation of miss folding proteins and RNA assembly	(Cagnoli et al., 2006, Cagnoli et al., 2010, Di Bella et al., 2010, Banfi et al., 1999, Koppen et al., 2007, Lobbe et al., 2014, Svenstrup et al., 2017,

SCA34	6q14.1	ELOVL4	One mutation for this disorder has been reported, a heterozygous point mutation (L168F)	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids-like 4	Synthesis of long chain fatty acid	Maltecca et al., 2015) (Cadioux-Dion et al., 2014, Agbaga et al., 2008)
SCA35	20p13	TGM6	Heterozygous mutation	Transglutaminase 6	Transglutaminases	(Wang et al., 2010a, Li et al., 2013, Guo et al., 2014, Hadjivassiliou et al., 2008)
SCA40	14q32.11-q32.12	CCDC88C	Heterozygous gain of function mutation that has been reported in one kindred R464H	Coiled-coil domain-containing protein 88c	Negative regulator of the Wnt signalling pathway	(Tsoi et al., 2014, Oshita et al., 2003)
SCA42	17q21.33	CACNA1G	Currently only one heterozygous mutation has been reported R1715H	Calcium channel, voltage-dependant, t type, alpha-1g subunit	Voltage active Ca ⁺⁺ channel	(Coutelier et al., 2015, Morino et al., 2015, Perez-Reyes et al.,

						1998, Jaganna than et al., 2002)
ADCAD <i>N</i> (Cerebel lar ataxia, deafnes s, and narcole psy, autoso mal domina nt)	19p13.2	DNMT1	Heterozygous mutation	DNA methyltransferase 1	DNA methylation	(Melber g et al., 1995, Winkel mann et al., 2012, Yoder et al., 1996)
EA1 (Episod ic Ataxia)	12p13.32	KCNA1	Heterozygous mutation	Potassium Channel, Voltage-Gated, Shaker- Related Subfamily, Member 1	K ⁺ channel	(Van Dyke et al., 1975, Gancher and Nutt, 1986, Graves et al., 2010, Litt et al., 1994, Glaude mans et al., 2009,

						Browne et al., 1994, Eunson et al., 2000)
EA2	19p13.13	CACNA1A	Heterozygous mutation	Calcium Channel, Voltage-Dependent, P/Q Type	Ca ⁺⁺ channel	(von Brederlow et al., 1995, Vahedi et al., 1995, Kordasi ewicz et al., 2006, Ophoff et al., 1996, Diriong et al., 1995)
EA5	2q23.3	CACNB4	Heterozygous mutation	Calcium Channel, Voltage-Dependent, Beta-4 Subunit	Ca ⁺⁺ channel	(Escayg et al., 2000, Escayg et al., 1998, Taviaux et al., 1997)
EA6	5p13.2	SLC1A3	Heterozygous mutation	Glial High Affinity Glutamate Transporter, Member 3	Na ⁺ dependant transporter that regulated	(Jen et al., 2005, de Vries

					neurotransmitter at glutamangeric synapses	et al., 2009, Winter et al., 2012, Kirschner et al., 1994, Takai et al., 1995)
SPAX1	12p13.31	VAMP1	Heterozygous(Ferguson and Critchley, 1929) mutations thought to lead to haploinsufficiency	vesicle-associated membrane protein-1 (synaptobrevin-1)	Synaptic vesical cycle	(Ferguson and Critchley, 1929, Meijer et al., 2002, Grewal et al., 2004, Bourassa et al., 2012)

[SPAX7](#)

Recessively Inherited Ataxias with Conventional Mutations

Ataxia	Genomic Locus	Gene	Mutation	Protein	Protein Function	Neurodegenerative Pathways	Sources
AOA1 ataxia-oculomotor apraxia 1 (may	9p21.1	APTX	Homozygous mutation where insertions and deletions are thought to confer a more sever phenotype while missense	aprataxin	histidine triad (HIT) superfamily that function in DNA single strand break repair		(Moreira et al., 2001, Barbot et al., 2001,

<i>also be denoted as EAOH)</i>			<i>mutation phenotype tends to be milder.</i>			<i>Criscuolo et al., 2004, Castellotti et al., 2011, Date et al., 2001, Sano et al., 2004, Whitehouse et al., 2001)</i>
<i>also denoted as SCAR1)</i>	<i>9q34.13</i>	<i>SETX</i> <i>Note a mutation in this gene is also associated with ALS</i>	<i>Homozygous or compound heterozygous mutation</i>	<i>senataxin</i>	<i>Transcriptional regulator</i> <i>DNA repair</i>	<i>(Moreira et al., 2004, Duquette et al., 2005, Bouchard et al., 1980, Nemeth et al., 2000, Bomont et al., 2000, Surawera et al., 2009, Airoidi</i>

AOA3	17p13.1	PIK3R5	One case has been reported of a consanguineous Saudi Arabian family with a homozygous mutation P629S	phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase, regulatory subunit 5	Cell proliferation, survival and chemotaxis	et al., 2010) (Al Tassan et al., 2012, Brock et al., 2003)
AOA4	19q13.33	PNKP	Homozygous or compound heterozygous mutation	polynucleotide kinase	DNA repair	(Bras et al., 2015, Jilani et al., 1999)
CAMR Q1	9p24.2	VLDLR	Homozygous mutation	low density lipoprotein receptor	Nervous system development	(Schurig et al., 1981, Glass et al., 2005, Boycott et al., 2005, Ozcelik et al., 2008)
CAMR Q2	17p13.3	WDR81	Homozygous mutation	WD repeat-containing protein 81	Conversion of early endosome to late endosome	(Gulsuner et al., 2011, Turkmen et al., 2006, Ozcelik

						et al., 2008, Liu et al., 2016b)
CAMR Q3	8q12.1	CA8	Two homozygous mutation in a consanguineous families have been reported, S100P and R237Q	Carbonic Anhydrase VIII	zinc metalloenzymes	(Turkmen et al., 2009, Najmabadi et al., 2011, Kato, 1990, Bergenhem et al., 1995, Hirota et al., 2003)
CAMR Q4	13q12.13	ATP8A2	One reported homozygous mutation I376M from a consanguineous family	ATPase, Class I, Type 8a, Member 2	transport of aminophospholipids	(Onat et al., 2013)
SCAR2	9q34.3	PMPCA	Homozygous or compound heterozygous mutation	Peptidase, Mitochondrial Processing, Alpha	subunit of a mitochondrial protease	(Norman, 1940, Megarbane et al., 1999, Jobling et al., 2015)
SCAR3	6p23-p21					(van Bogaert and

						Martin, 1974, Spöndl in, 1974, Bomont et al., 2000)
SACR7	11p15.4	TPP1 Note Biallelic mutation on this gene may also result in neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis-2	Mutations tend to be compound heterozygous	Tripeptidyl Peptidase I	lysosomal exopeptidase	(Breedveld et al., 2004, Sun et al., 2013, Dy et al., 2015)
SCAR8	6q25.2	SYNE1	Homozygous mutations	Spectrin Repeat-Containing Nuclear Envelope Protein 1	Links plasma membrane to actin skeleton	(Gros-Louis et al., 2007, Izumi et al., 2013, Dupre et al., 2007, Zhang et al., 2001, Puckelwartz et al., 2009)

SCAR9	1q42.13	ADCK3	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutation	Coenzyme Q8A	Synthesis of coenzyme Q10	(Puckelwartz et al., 2009, Mollet et al., 2008, Aure et al., 2004, Iizumi et al., 2002)
SCAR10	3p22.1-p21.3	ANO10	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutations	ANOCTAMIN 10	Ca ⁺⁺ activated chloride channel	(Vermeer et al., 2010, Balreira et al., 2014)
SCAR11	1q32.2	SYT14	Homozygous and translocation mutation	Synaptotagmin 14	Membrane trafficking	(Doi et al., 2011, Fukuda, 2003, Quintero-Rivera et al., 2007, Herrero-Turrion et al., 2006)
SCAR12	16q23.1-q23.2	WWOX	Homozygous mutation Note that a biallelic mutation in this gene also causes infantile epileptic encephalopathy-28	WW Domain-Containing Oxidoreductase	Transcriptional regulator	(Mallar et al., 2014, Gribaa et al.,

2007, Bednarek et al., 2000, Aqeilan et al., 2007, Chang et al., 2003) (Lise et al., 2012, Elsayed et al., 2014, Jackson et al., 2001, Clarkson et al., 2014, Stanke wick et al., 1998) (Assoum et al., 2010, Assoum et al., 2013, Matsunaga et al., 2009, Nagase

SCAR14 (see also SCA5)	11q13.2	SPTBN2	Homozygous mutation Note a heterozygous mutation in the SPTBN2 causes SCA5			
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SCAR15	3q29	KIAA0226	Homozygous mutation of which one has been reported, 1 bp deletion, 2927delC	Run Domain- And Cysteine-Rich Domain-Containing Beclin-1-Interacting Protein	Maturation of endosomes and vesicular trafficking	
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<u>SCAR1</u> <u>6</u>	16p13.3	STUB1	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutations	Stip1 Homologous And U Box-Containing Protein 1	Ubiquitin ligase and chaperone that regulates protein degradation	et al., 1996) (Shi et al., 2013, Shi et al., 2014, Synofzik et al., 2014, Min et al., 2008, Ballinger et al., 1999)
<u>SCAR1</u> <u>7</u>	10q24.31	CWF19L1	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutation	Cwf19-Like Protein 1	mRNA processing and possibly DNA repair (unconfirmed)	(Evers et al., 2016, Yapici and Eraksoy, 2005, Nguyen et al., 2016, Burns et al., 2014)
<u>SCAR1</u> <u>8</u>	4q22.1-q22.2	GRID2	Homozygous deletion <u>Two mutations</u> have been reported	Glutamate Receptor, Ionotropic, Delta 2	Neurotransmitter receptor	(Hills et al., 2013, Utine et al., 2013, Lalouett

						e et al., 1998)
SCAR19 (Lichte nstein-Knorr Syndrome)	1p36.11	SLC9A1	Homozygous mutation One mutation has been reported, G305R	Solute Carrier Family 9, Member 1	Na ⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter involved in pH regulation and actin filament anchor	(Guissart et al., 2015, Mattei et al., 1988, Franchi et al., 1986, Denker et al., 2000)
SCAR20	6q14.3	SNX14	Homozygous mutation	Sorting Nexin 14	Endosome sorting	(Thomas et al., 2014, Sousa et al., 2014, Akizu et al., 2015, Carroll et al., 2001, Shukla et al., 2017)
SCAR21	11q13.1	SCYL1	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutations	SCY1-like 1	intracellular transport	(Schmidt et al., 2015, Kato et al., 2002, Liu et al.,

						2000, Shukla et al., 2017)
SCAR2 2	2q11.2	VWA3B	Homozygous mutation One mutation has been reported, K622T	Von Willebrand Factor A Domain-Containing Protein 3B	Predicted to function in transcription, DNA repair as well as ribosomal and membrane transport	(Kawarai et al., 2016)
SCAR2 3	6p22.3	TDP2	Two homozygous mutations have been reported, intron 3 splice site mutation (G/A) and Ser138Ter	Tyrosyl-DNA Phosphodiesterase 2	DNA repair	(Gomez-Herreros et al., 2014, Ledesma et al., 2009, Pype et al., 2000)
SCAR2 4	3q22.1	UBA5	Compound heterozygous mutation Two such mutations has been reported R246X and K310E	Ubiquitin-Like Modifier Activating Enzyme 5	ubiquitin-fold modifier 1-activating enzyme	(Duan et al., 2016, Komatsu et al., 2004, Dou et al., 2005)
Ataxia-Telangiectasia	11q22.3	ATM	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutations	Ataxia-Telangiectasia Mutated	DNA repair, cell cycle control, telomere length regulator, epigenetic regulator, vesicular trafficking	(Sanal et al., 1990, Woods and Taylor, 1992, Savitsky et al., 1995,

Uziel et al., 1996, Gatti et al., 1988, Hawley and Friend, 1996, Banin et al., 1998, Canman et al., 1998, Lim et al., 1998, Banga et al., 1986, Baker et al., 1976)
(Hernandez et al., 1993, Stewart et al., 1999, Paull and Gellert, 1998, Trujillo

<u>Ataxia-Telangiectasia-Like Disorder-1</u>	11q21	MRE11A	Homozygous and compound heterozygous	Meiotic Recombination 11, <i>S. Cerevisiae</i> , Homolog of A	DNA repair	
--	-------	--------	--------------------------------------	---	------------	--

<u>Marine sco-Sjoqren Syndrome</u>	5q31.2	SIL1	Homozygous and compound heterozygous	SIL1	nucleotide exchange factor	et al., 1998) (Lagier-Tourenne et al., 2003, Anttönen et al., 2005, Senderek et al., 2005, Chung et al., 2002, Takahata et al., 2010, Tyson and Stirling, 2000)
<u>SPAX2</u>	17p13.2	KIF1C	Homozygous mutation	Kinesin Family Member 1C	Microtubule motor protein	(Dor et al., 2014, Bouslam et al., 2007, Novarino et al., 2014, Dorner et al., 1998)
<u>SPAX3</u>	2q33.1	MARS2	Homozygous and compound heterozygous	Methionyl-tRNA Synthetase 2	Aminoacylation of tRNA in transcription	(Thiffault et al., 2006,

Mutations tend to be
[duplications](#)

Bayat et al., 2012, Spencer et al., 2004)

SPAX4	10p11.23	MTPAP	Homozygous	Mitochondrial Poly(A) Polymerase	Processing of mitochondrial mRNA	(Crosby et al., 2010, Wilson et al., 2014, Lapkouski and Hallberg, 2015)
SPAX5	18p11.21	AFG3L2	Homozygous mutation Note: Heterozygous mutations cause SCA28	ATPase Family Gene 3-Like 2	Catalytic subunit the mitochondrial metalloprotease which functions in degradation of miss folding proteins and RNA assembly	(Pierson et al., 2011, Muona et al., 2015, Koppen et al., 2007, Banfi et al., 1999)
SPAX6 (Spastic Ataxia, Charlevoix-Saguenay)	13q12.12	SACS	Homozygous and compound heterozygous mutation	Sacsin	Ubiquitination and processing of Ataxin-1	(Baets et al., 2010, Bouchard et al., 1978, Richter et al., 1999)

ay Type)						Parfitt et al., 2009)
SCAN1	14q32.11	Tdp1	Homozygous mutation	tyrosyl-DNA phosphodiesterase-1	Hydrolyses the protein-DNA bond during replication DNA repair	(Takashi ma et al., 2002, El-Khamisy et al., 2005, Pouliot et al., 1999, Interthal et al., 2001)

Other/Unknown Mutation/ Undefined

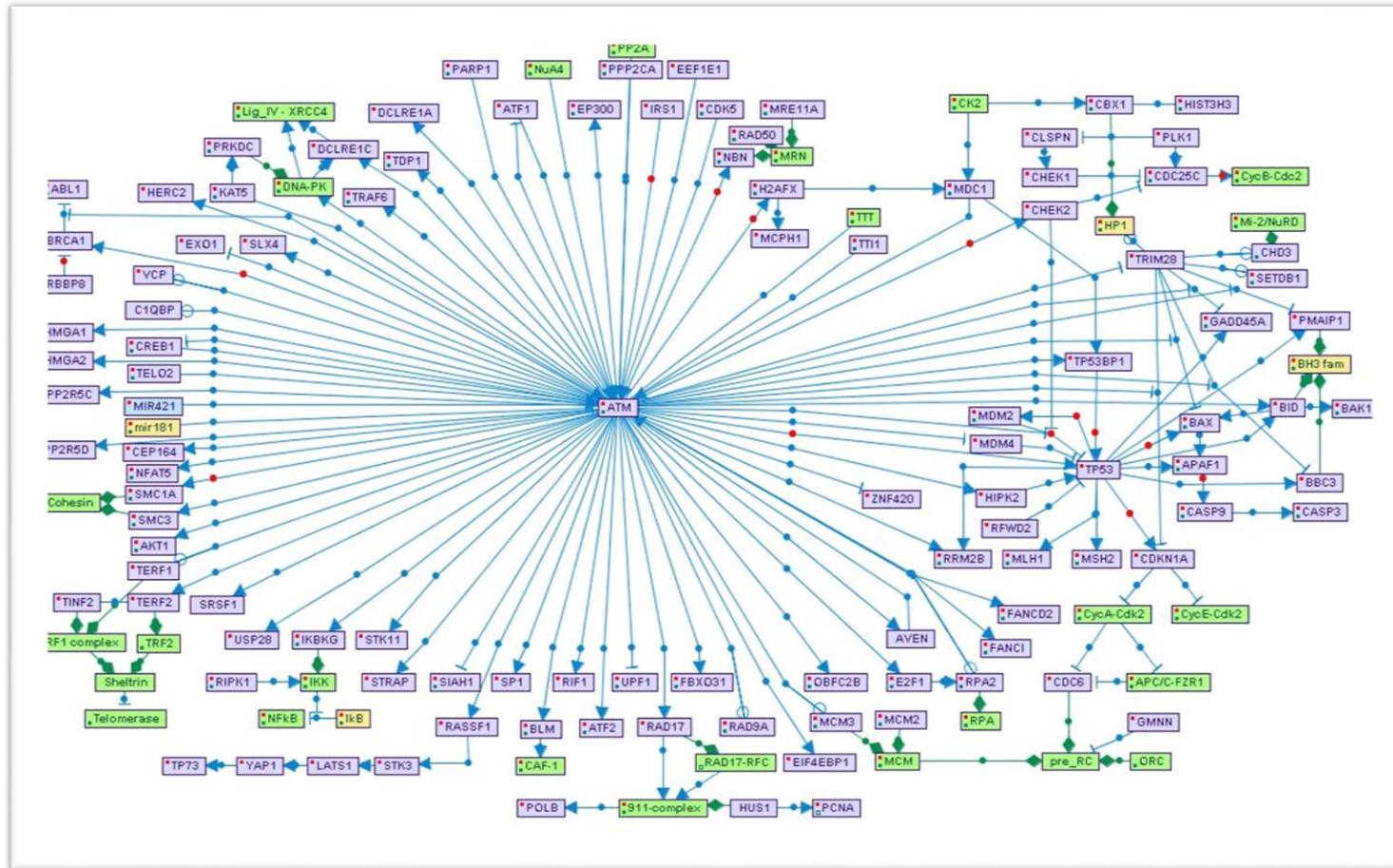
Ataxia	Genomic Locus	Gene	Protein	Protein Function	
SCA20	11q12	Pericentromeric duplication of 12 of genes, including SPTBN2 (SCA5) and DAGLA . It was determined that SCA5 and SCA20 and distinct disease and that SCA20	DAGLA	diacylglycerol lipase that catalyses lipidation of DAG	(Knight et al., 2004, Lorenzo et al., 2006, Knight et al., 2008, Bisogno et al., 2003, Ishikawa et al., 1998)

<i>is caused by a copy number variation of DAGLA</i>						
SCA30	4q34.3-q35.1	ODZ3 (candidate gene)	Unknown		Teneurin transmembrane protein 3	(Storey et al., 2009, Nagase et al., 2000)
SCA32	7q32-q33	PODXL (candidate gene – unconfirmed)	Unknown	Unknown		(Jiang et al., 2010, Zhu et al., 2011)

Appendix 1.2. Table Exhibiting Incidence of presentation/diagnosis of Genetic Ataxias discussed in section 1.1 of the text, seen at the Sheffield Ataxia Centre, UK, over a 20-year period

<i>Ataxia</i>	<i>Percentage of all Ataxias presented at the clinic</i>	<i>Percentage of Genetic Ataxias</i>
SCA1	0.2	0.8
SCA2	0.7	2.4
SCA3	0.2	0.6
SCA5	0.3	0.9
SCA6	3	10
SCA7	0.4	1.3
SCA8	0.06	0.2
SCA11	0.13	0.44
SCA13	0.26	0.9
SCA14	0.3	1.1
SCA15	0.2	0.66
SCA17	0.06	0.2
SCA18	0.06	0.2
SCA19	0.2	0.6
SAC27	0.06	0.2
SCA28	0.2	0.6
SCA29	0.06	0.2
SCA35	0.3	1.1
EA1	0.13	0.44
EA2	2.8	9.2
EA5	0.13	0.44
EA6	0.13	0.44
<i>Friedreich's ataxia</i>	4.8	16
AOA2	0.26	0.9
<i>Ataxia Telangiectasia</i>	0.2	0.6

Appendix 1.3 Map summarising ATM effector protein activation/inactivation in the DDR. Map was collated using SPIKE database (331). Protein families are shown in yellow, protein complexes are in green, individual proteins in grey, a microRNA in blue.



Appendix 1.4 Clustal Ω Alignment of ATM protein sequences from a selection vertebrates. Similarly, to figure 1.3 in text, human TAN domain is denoted in orange (residues 8-165), HEAT domain in blue (residues 166- 1939), FAT domain in green (residues 1940-2566), Kinase domain in pink (residues 2712- 2962) and FATC domain in grey (3023-3056).

Zebrafish	MSLALHELLVCCRGLENEKATERKKEVDRFRRLICSPDTEELDRTSGSKGSKQLTWDAV	60
Rat	MSLALNDLLICCRQLEHDRATERRKEVDKFKRLIQDPETVQHLDHRHSDSKQGKYLNWDAV	60
Mouse	MSLALNDLLICCRQLEHDRATERRKEVDKFKRLIQDPETVQHLDHRHSDSKQGKYLNWDAV	60
Pig	MSLALNDLLICCRQLEHDRATERKAVENFRHLIQDPETVQHLDQHSKQGKYLNWDAV	60
Rabbit	MSLALNDLLICCRQLEHDRATERRKEVEKFKRLIRDPEVQQLDRHSDSKQGKYLNWDAV	60
Human	MSLVLNDLLICCRQLEHDRATERRKEVEKFKRLIRDPEVQQLDRHSDSKQGKYLNWDAV	60
Chimp	MSLVLNDLLICCRQLEHDRATERRKEVEKFKRLIRDPEVQQLDRHSDSKQGKYLNWDAV	60
	.*:**:* **:*: **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	
Zebrafish	FRFLQKFLKKEATELLQSGKANVSASTQANRQKKMQEISSLMKFFIRCANQRGPRLKCAEL	120
Rat	FRFLQKYIQKETESLRTAKSNVSASTQTSRQKKMQEISSLVVRFKICANKRAPRLKCQDL	120
Mouse	FRFLQKYIQKEMESLRTAKSNVSASTQSSRQKKMQEISSLVRYFIKANKRAPRLKCQDL	120
Pig	FRFLQKYIQKETECLRTAKQNVASASTQATRQKKMQEISSLVKYFIKANKRAPRLKCQEL	120
Rabbit	FRFLQKYIQKETECLRTAKPNVSASTQASRQKKMQEISSLVKYFIKANKRAPRLKCQEL	120
Human	FRFLQKYIQKETECLRIAKPNVSASTQASRQKKMQEISSLVKYFIKANKRAPRLKCQEL	120
Chimp	FRFLQKYIQKETECLRIAKPNVSASTQASRQKKMQEISSLVKYFIKANKRAPRLKCQEL	120
	*****:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	
Zebrafish	ISHVVEVLQSPFSCVAYGEDYSSILLKNILSVRKYWCEMSQQQWHSLLDLFCGLFNRGTR	180
Rat	LNVMMDTVKDSNGATYGADCSNILLKIDILSVRKYWCEVSQQQWLELFSLYIRLYLKPSQ	180
Mouse	LNVMMDTVKDSNGLTYGADCSNILLKIDILSVRKYWCEVSQQQWLELFSLYFRLYLKPSQ	180
Pig	LNVMMDTVKDSNGLTYGADCSNILLKIDILSVRKYWCEVSQQQWLELFSLYFRLYLKPSQ	180
Rabbit	LNVMMDTVKDSNGLTYGADCSNILLKIDILSVRKYWCEVSQQQWLELFSLYFRLYLKPSQ	180
Human	LNVMMDTVKDSNGLTYGADCSNILLKIDILSVRKYWCEVSQQQWLELFSLYFRLYLKPSQ	180
Chimp	LNVMMDTVKDSNGLTYGADCSNILLKIDILSVRKYWCEVSQQQWLELFSLYFRLYLKPSQ	180
	:::***:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	
Zebrafish	SINRVQVSRIIYTVVWGCVQTEGLSHTLNFNFKALSNSRAEKQLMVLENLVSANVFL	240
Rat	DINRVLVARI IHAVTRGCCSQTDGLPSKFLDLFSKAIQYARQEKSSPGLSHILAAALNIFL	240
Mouse	DINRVLVARI IHAVTRGCCSQTDGLPSKFLDLFSKAIQYARQEKSSPGLSHILAAALNIFL	240
Pig	DINRVLVARI IHAVTRGCCSQTDGLNSKFLDLFSKAIQYARQEKSSPGLNHILAAAYVIFL	240
Rabbit	DINRVLVARI IHAVTRGCCSQTDGLNSKFLDLFSKAIQYARQEKSSAGLNHILAAALIFL	240
Human	DVHRVLVARI IHAVTRGCCSQTDGLNSKFLDLFSKAIQYARQEKSSSGLNHILAAALTIIFL	240
Chimp	DVHRVLVARI IHAVTRGCCSQTDGLNSKFLDLFSKAIQYARQEKSSSGLNHILAAALTIIFL	240
	:::***:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	
Zebrafish	RSVLLSCRKRVCGLEEVLSMDLVCYVTGMRPSSVLKEELVKFFQIQLFVHHPKGAKTJET	300
Rat	KTLAVNFRKRVCEIGDEILPTLLYIWTQHRNLDSLKEVIEELIHLQIYIHHHPQGAKEPEE	300
Mouse	KSLAVNFRKRVCEAGDEILPTLLYIWTQHRNLDSLKEVIEELIHLQIYIHHHPQGAKEPEE	300
Pig	KTLAANFRIRVCELGDKILPTLLYIWTQHRNLDSLKEVIEELFQLQVYMHHHPKGAKTQEK	300
Rabbit	KTLAINCRIRACELGDEILPTLLYIWAQHRNLDSLKEVIEELFQLQVSIHHHPKGAKTEDR	300
Human	KTLAVNFRIRVCELGDEILPTLLYIWTQHRNLDSLKEVIEELFQLQIYIHHHPKGAKTQEK	300
Chimp	KTLAVNFRIRVCELGDEILPTLLYIWTQHRNLDSLKEVIEELFQLQIYIHHHPKGAKTQEK	300
	:::***:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	
Zebrafish	GAQAQDQWVKWRSQCLTLYDALVSEISQIGSRGKYATGSRHIAVKENLIELTADVCHQLFN	360
Rat	GAY--ESMKWKRIYNLYDLLVNEISHIGSRGKYSSGSRNIAVKENLIDLMADVCYQLFN	358
Mouse	GAY--ESMKWKSILYNLYDLLVNEISHIGSRGKYSSGSRNIAVKENLIDLMADICVQLFD	358
Pig	GAY--ESAKWKSILYNLYDLLVNEISRIGSRGKYSSGSRNIAVKENLIELMADICHQVFN	358
Rabbit	GAF--KSAKWQSILYNLYDLVNEISYIGSRGKYSSGSRNIAVKENLIELMADICHQVFN	358
Human	GAY--ESTKWSIILYNLYDLLVNEISHIGSRGKYSSGFRNIAVKENLIELMADICHQVFN	358
Chimp	GAY--ESTKWSIILYNLYDLLVNEISHIGSRGKYSSGFRNIAVKENLIELMADICHQVFN	358
	** . **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	
Zebrafish	QSTRVQEVTSVCRD--TQRDPSQCKRRRVELSNWELIRSKLQPHHSDFDMIPLWQVTA	418
Rat	ADTRSVEISQSYA-TQRESTDYSVPCKRRKIDI-GWEVIKDYLQKSQNDFDLVPWLQITTT	416
Mouse	ADTRSVEISQSYV-TQRESTDYSVPCKRRKIDV-GWEVIKDYLQKSQSDFDLVPWLQITTT	416
Pig	EDTRSLEISQSYTTTQREFSDYNAPCKRRKIEL-GWGVKDHDLQKSQNDFDVVPWLQIAT	417
Rabbit	EDTRSLEISQSYTTTQRESSEYSTPCKRRKIEL-GWEVIKDHDLQKSQNDFDLVPWLQITTT	417
Human	EDTRSLEISQSYTTTQRESSDYSVPCKRRKIEL-GWEVIKDHDLQKSQNDFDLVPWLQIAT	417
Chimp	EDTRSLEISQSYTTTQRESSDYSVPCKRRKIEL-GWEVIKDHDLQKSQNDFDLVPWLQIAT	417
	.** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:*** **:*:***	

Appendix 3

Appendix 3.1 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to figure 3.2: Expression of ATM mRNA in wild type and ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish

Figure b: Expression of ATM mRNA through first 7 days of development normalised to 7 dpf

Ordinary one-way ANOVA	F Value	P value	P value summary	Significant diff. among means (P < 0.05)?	R squared
	163.5	<0.0001	****	Yes	0.9864
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
16 cell vs. 50% epiboly	7.750	6.806 to 8.693	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. End of gastrulation	7.750	6.806 to 8.693	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. 24 hpf	7.668	6.724 to 8.611	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. 2 dpf	6.977	6.034 to 7.921	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. 3 dpf	6.735	5.791 to 7.678	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. 4 dpf	6.283	5.340 to 7.226	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. 5 dpf	6.882	5.938 to 7.825	Yes	****	<0.0001
16 cell vs. 7 dpf	7.130	6.187 to 8.074	Yes	****	<0.0001
50% epiboly vs. End of gastrulation	0.000	-0.9433 to 0.9433	No	ns	>0.9999
50% epiboly vs. 24 hpf	-0.08201	-1.025 to 0.8613	No	ns	>0.9999
50% epiboly vs. 2 dpf	-0.7721	-1.715 to 0.1712	No	ns	0.1622
50% epiboly vs. 3 dpf	-1.015	-1.958 to -0.07155	Yes	*	0.0295
50% epiboly vs. 4 dpf	-1.467	-2.410 to -0.5234	Yes	***	0.0009
50% epiboly vs. 5 dpf	-0.8678	-1.811 to 0.07552	No	ns	0.0855
50% epiboly vs. 7 dpf	-0.6191	-1.562 to 0.3242	No	ns	0.3908
End of gastrulation vs. 24 hpf	-0.08201	-1.025 to 0.8613	No	ns	>0.9999
End of gastrulation vs. 2 dpf	-0.7721	-1.715 to 0.1712	No	ns	0.1622
End of gastrulation vs. 3 dpf	-1.015	-1.958 to -0.07155	Yes	*	0.0295
End of gastrulation vs. 4 dpf	-1.467	-2.410 to -0.5234	Yes	***	0.0009
End of gastrulation vs. 5 dpf	-0.8678	-1.811 to 0.07552	No	ns	0.0855
End of gastrulation vs. 7 dpf	-0.6191	-1.562 to 0.3242	No	ns	0.3908
24 hpf vs. 2 dpf	-0.6901	-1.633 to 0.2532	No	ns	0.2669

24 hpf vs. 3 dpf	-0.9329	-1.876 to 0.01046	No	ns	0.0539
24 hpf vs. 4 dpf	-1.385	-2.328 to 0.4413	Yes	**	0.0017
24 hpf vs. 5 dpf	-0.7858	-1.729 to 0.1575	No	ns	0.1485
24 hpf vs. 7 dpf	-0.5371	-1.480 to 0.4062	No	ns	0.5648
2 dpf vs. 3 dpf	-0.2428	-1.186 to 0.7006	No	ns	0.9900
2 dpf vs. 4 dpf	-0.6946	-1.638 to 0.2488	No	ns	0.2602
2 dpf vs. 5 dpf	-0.09569	-1.039 to 0.8477	No	ns	>0.9999
2 dpf vs. 7 dpf	0.1530	-0.7903 to 1.096	No	ns	0.9996
3 dpf vs. 4 dpf	-0.4518	-1.395 to 0.4915	No	ns	0.7515
3 dpf vs. 5 dpf	0.1471	-0.7963 to 1.090	No	ns	0.9997
3 dpf vs. 7 dpf	0.3958	-0.5476 to 1.339	No	ns	0.8550
4 dpf vs. 5 dpf	0.5989	-0.3445 to 1.542	No	ns	0.4313
4 dpf vs. 7 dpf	0.8476	-0.09576 to 1.791	No	ns	0.0984
5 dpf vs. 7 dpf	0.2487	-0.6946 to 1.192	No	ns	0.9883

Figure c: Expression of ATM mRNA from 7-28 dpf, normalised to 7 dpf.

Ordinary one-way ANOVA	F Value	P value	P value summary	Significant diff. among means (P < 0.05)?	R square d
	7.312	0.0111	*	Yes	0.7328
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below thresh old?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
7 dpf vs. 14 dpf	-8.504	-14.58 to -2.430	Yes	**	0.0088
7 dpf vs. 21 dpf	-2.588	-8.661 to 3.486	No	ns	0.5522
7 dpf vs. 28 dpf	-5.086	-11.16 to 0.9872	No	ns	0.1042
14 dpf vs. 21 dpf	5.916	-0.1573 to 11.99	No	ns	0.0562
14 dpf vs. 28 dpf	3.418	-2.656 to 9.491	No	ns	0.3389
21 dpf vs. 28 dpf	-2.499	-8.572 to 3.575	No	ns	0.5780

Figure d: Expression of ATM^{+/+} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} at 5dpf

Unpaired t test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	t, df	Effect Size	Sample Size required for 90% power	Sample size in experiment
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.7797	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=0.2992, df=4	0.569	132	6

Figure e. Expression of ATM^{+/+}, ATM^{+/sh477} and ATM^{sh477/sh477} at 3 weeks old

Ordinary one-way ANOVA	F Value	P value	P value summary	Significant diff. among means (P < 0.05)?	R squared	Effect Size	Sample Size required for 90% power	Sample size in Experiment
	0.3818	0.6981	ns	No	0.1129	0.315	132	9
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value			
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-0.004468	-0.04203 to 0.03310	No	ns	0.9300			
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.006185	-0.03138 to 0.04375	No	ns	0.8716			
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.01065	-0.02691 to 0.04822	No	ns	0.6770			

Figure f. 3' expression (exons 1-2) of ATM mRNA at 3 weeks

Ordinary one-way ANOVA	F Value	P value	P value summary	Significant diff. among means (P < 0.05)?	R squared	Effect Size	Sample Size required for 90% power	Sample size in experiment
	1.242	0.3536	ns	No	0.2929	0.534	48	9
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value			
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	0.5195	-2.999 to 4.038	No	ns	0.8949	0.821		
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-1.240	-4.758 to 2.279	No	ns	0.5586	0.695		
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-1.759	-5.277 to 1.759	No	ns	0.3416	0.799		

Figure g. 3' expression (exons 4-5) of ATM mRNA at 3 weeks

Ordinary one-way ANOVA	F Value	P value	P value summary	Significant diff. among means (P < 0.05)?	R squared	Effect Size	Sample Size required for 90% power	Sample size in experiment
	1.469	0.3025	Ns	No	0.3287	0.737887	27	9
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value			
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	0.4559	-1.823 to 2.735	No	ns	0.8183			

ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-0.8016	-3.081 to 1.478	No	ns	0.5597
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-1.257	-3.537 to 1.022	No	ns	0.2825

Figure h. ATM mRNA global expression in adult zebrafish

Unpaired t test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	t, df	Effect Size	Sample Size required for 90% power	Sample size in experiment
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.7576	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=0.3305, df=4	0.636	106	6

Figure i. ATM mRNA expression in the brain of adult zebrafish

Unpaired t test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	t, df	Effect Size	Sample Size required for 90% power	Sample size in experiment
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.2549	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.328, df=4	0.778	72	6

Appendix 3.2 Production of zebrafish specific ATM antibody by Proteintech™



contact us:
USA: proteintech@ptglab.com
UK & europe: europe@ptglab.com
china: service@ptglab.com

Customer Production Report

Prepared By: Elora

Signature: _____

Date: 1/16/2020

Customer Name: Andrew Grierson

Order ID: ME025579-1

Customer Antigen Name: Zebrafish ATM (1-120aa)

Antigen Format: cDNA

Product ID: 90136

PTG Template cDNA Information

Source of cDNA template: Gene synthesis

cDNA-Expression vector construction

Design:

Expression vector: PGEX-4T

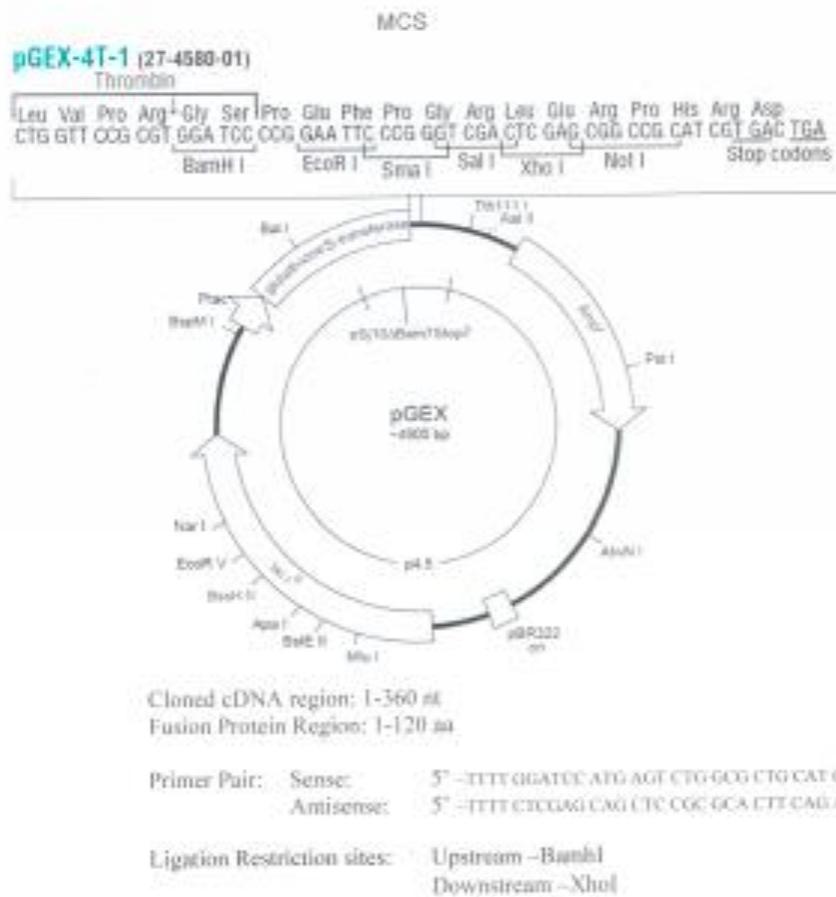
Expression vector map:

ptglab.com

ME025579-1

1

Customer Production Report



Customer Production Report

Resistance: Amp

PCR Condition: 94°C 2min; (94°C 1min, 55°C 1min, 72°C 2min) × 35; 72°C 5min

Initial PCR result:



Memo:

To identify the positive clones with inserts, bacterium from clones after transformation was directly examined in PCR using the same primer pairs mentioned above.

Protein Expression

Bacterial Strain: BL21

Small scale:

Culture Condition: 37°C, 220rpm;

IPTG: 0.5mM

Induction time: 3.5h

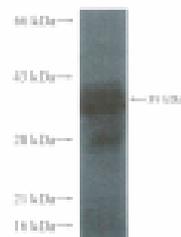
Western Blotting: Samples: total bacterium lysates (40 µg protein)

Primary antibody: Mouse α-GST IgG ab (66001)-1-Ig, Proteintech, 1:10000

Second antibody: HRP conjugated Goat anti-Mouse IgG ab (Proteintech, 1:10000)

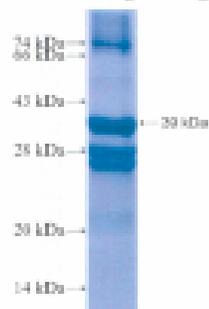
Customer Production Report

SDS PAGE-Western Blot Data:



Large scale:

Culture Condition: 37°C, 220rpm
IPTG: 0,5mM
Induction time: 3,5h
SDS PAGE and CBB staining: 10% gel



Total Number of Purification Runs: 1

Total Amount of Purified Protein: >2mg

Total Volume of Purified Protein: 0.6ml

Customer Production Report

*Amount: 50ug *2

Purified protein in 100mM GSH,58mM Na₂HPO₄,17mM NaH₂PO₄, 68mM NaCl, pH8.0, Normally 5% - 8% trehalose and mannitol are added as protectants before lyophilization.

Reconstitution: Reconstitute in sterile water (Concentration/Volume: 0.5 µg/µL in 100 µL, 0.1 µg/µL in 500 µL et al).

Immunization

Rabbits Serial Number given by PTG: S4773
Injection Schedule:
Protocol: long

Pre-bleed Date:	9/27/2019
Primary Immunization Date:	9/28/2019
Boost 1:	10/25/2019
Boost 2:	11/8/2019
Test bleed:	11/22/2019
Boost 3:	11/26/2019
Production bleed 1:	12/10/2019
Boost 4:	12/12/2019
Production bleed 2:	12/24/2019
Final bleed:	1/7/2020

ELISA test result of test bleed: titer 1:1,000,000

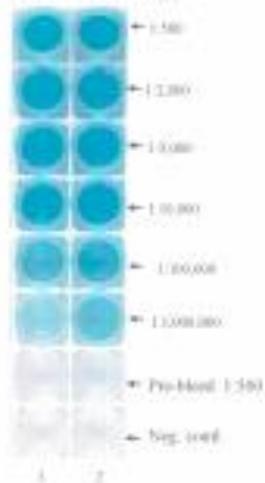
Customer Production Report

ELISA Result Report

11/22/2019 done by Nancy

Ab source: test bleed
Incubation Buffer: 5 % milk in PBST

1: Rabbit No. 1
2: Rabbit No. 2



Optional Western blot Data of test Bleed: N/A

Serum Volume:
Production Bleed 1: 1# 13ml; 2# 13ml
Production Bleed 2: 1# 15ml; 2# 15ml
Final Bleed: 1# 60ml; 2# 60ml

Affinity Purification

Affinity Ligand: GST-Fusion Protein

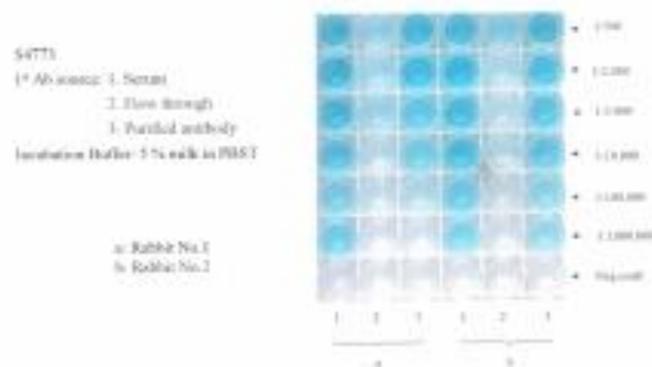
Initial serum volume: 15ml/Production Bleed 2(absorbed with GST)

Customer Production Report

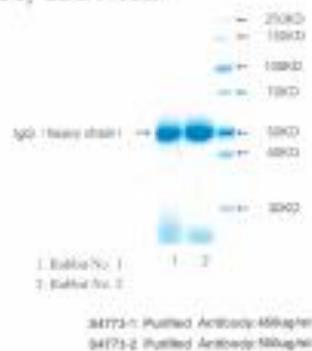
Final Purified Antibody Volume: No.1 11ml; No.2 10ml

ELISA: No.1 Initial serum 1:1,000,000 Flow Through 1:2,000 Purified Antibody 1:10,000 ;
No.2 Initial serum 1:1,000,000 Flow Through 1:500 Purified Antibody 1:1,000,000

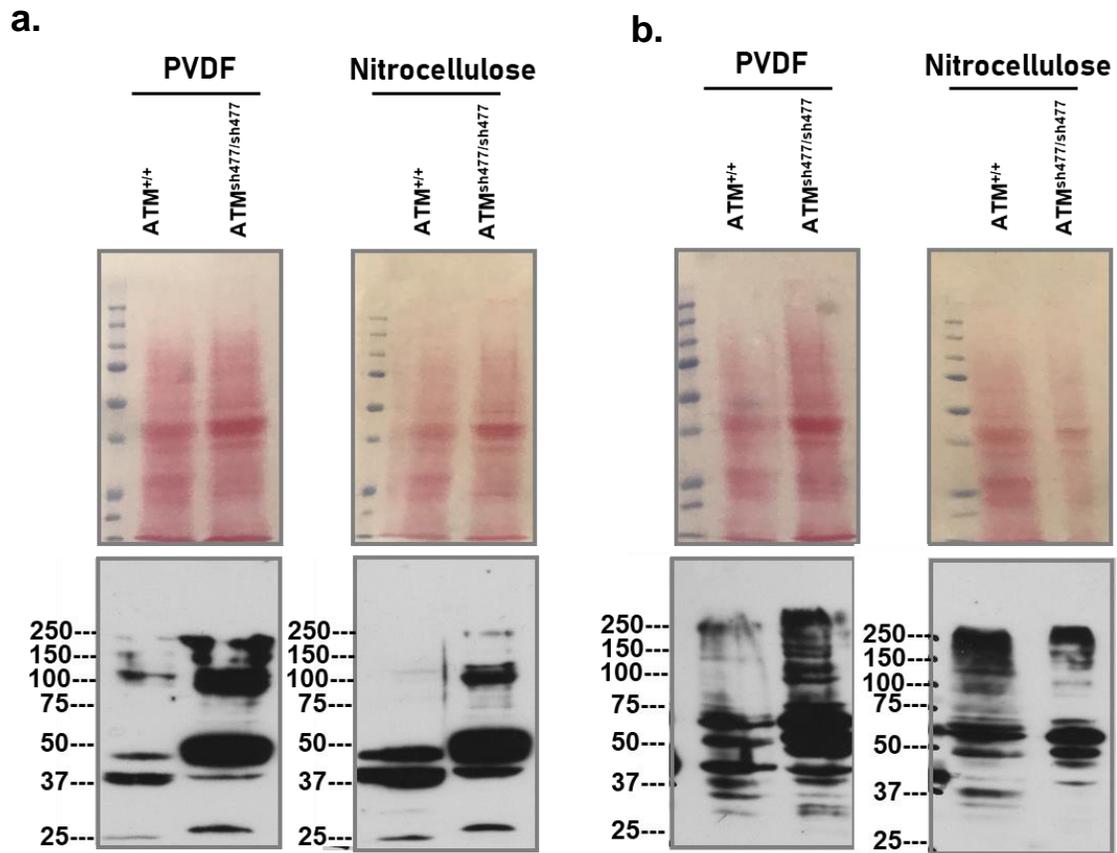
ELISA Result Report



Estimate antibody concentration by SDS-PAGE:



Appendix 3.3: Optimisation of transfer membrane for detection of zebrafish ATM by zATM antibodies.



Appendix 3.4 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to figure 3.6: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish develop as male when raised at normal densities.

Figure b. Sex distribution observed within the clutches

Unpaired t test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	t, df
Male vs Female	0.8883	Ns	No	Two-tailed	t=0.1496, df=4

Figure c. Sex distribution within the genotypes of the progeny

Two-way ANOVA					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Sex vs Genotype	87.44	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Sex	1.447	0.2351	ns	No	
Genotype	4.807e-015	>0.9999	ns	No	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Male					
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	0.4544	-29.78 to 30.69	No	ns	0.9991
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-67.21	-97.44 to -36.98	Yes	***	0.0002
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-67.67	-97.90 to -37.43	Yes	***	0.0002
Female					
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	-0.4544	-30.69 to 29.78	No	ns	0.9991
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	67.21	36.98 to 97.44	Yes	***	0.0002
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	67.67	37.43 to 97.90	Yes	***	0.0002
Šidák's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Male - Female					
$ATM^{+/+}$	-36.33	-67.72 to -4.932	Yes	*	0.0225
$ATM^{+/sh477}$	-37.23	-68.63 to -5.841	Yes	*	0.0194
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	98.10	66.70 to 129.5	Yes	****	<0.0001

Appendix 3.5 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to figure 3.8: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish morphologically exhibit no increase in their radiosensitivity compared to $ATM^{+/+}$ siblings.

Figure c: quantification of the length of progeny from the $ATM^{+/sh477}$ in-cross

Two way ANOVA					
Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Irradiation Dose x Genotype	1.103	0.8397	ns	No	
Irradiation Dose	14.96	0.0001	***	Yes	
Genotype	0.4906	0.7296	ns	No	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0 Gys vs. 2 Gy	0.02548	-0.3010 to 0.3520	No	ns	0.9812
0 Gys vs. 8 Gys	0.4975	0.1735 to 0.8215	Yes	**	0.0012
2 Gy vs. 8 Gys	0.4720	0.1776 to 0.7664	Yes	***	0.0007
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0 Gys					
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	-0.04125	-0.6906 to 0.6081	No	ns	0.9875
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	0.01758	-0.5752 to 0.6103	No	ns	0.9973
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	0.05883	-0.5339 to 0.6516	No	ns	0.9698
2 Gys					
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	0.2086	-0.3088 to 0.7260	No	ns	0.6047
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	0.09795	-0.4652 to 0.6611	No	ns	0.9101
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-0.1106	-0.5689 to 0.3477	No	ns	0.8343
8 Gys					
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	0.04346	-0.4192 to 0.5061	No	ns	0.9729
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-0.1955	-0.7418 to 0.3507	No	ns	0.6722
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-0.2390	-0.7420 to 0.2640	No	ns	0.4980

Appendix 3.6 Statistical analysis corresponding to figure 3.9: H2AX phosphorylation in $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ larval zebrafish

Figure b: quantification of the relative area of γ H2AX foci/cell

Two way ANOVA					
<i>Alpha</i>	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Irradiation Dose x Genotype	2.792	0.0005	***	Yes	
Irradiation Dose	28.00	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Genotype	0.5734	0.0731	ns	No	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0 Gys vs. 8 Gy	-0.2804	-0.3665 to -0.1943	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gys vs. 12 Gys	-0.4289	-0.5093 to -0.3485	Yes	****	<0.0001
8 Gy vs. 12 Gys	-0.1485	-0.2241 to -0.07294	Yes	****	<0.0001
Šidák's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
$ATM^{+/+}$ v $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$					
0 Gy	-0.09686	-0.2271 to 0.03342	No	ns	0.2095
8 Gy	-0.1460	-0.2638 to -0.02834	Yes	**	0.0093
12 Gy	0.09171	-0.007708 to 0.1911	No	ns	0.0804
Number of fish analysed for each experimental condition					
$ATM^{+/+}$					
0 Gy	3				
8 Gy	9				
12 Gy	6				
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$					
0 Gy	3				
8 Gy	2				
12 Gy	4				

Appendix 3.7 Statistical analysis corresponding to figure 3.10: *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* show no inability to produce immunoglobulins

Mann Whitney test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two- tailed P value?	Sum of ranks in column A,B	Mann- Whitney U	Effect Size	No of fish requir ed for 90% power	No of fish in esperi ment
IgM <i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs <i>ATM^{sh477/sh477}</i>	0.420 6	ns	No	Two- tailed	32 , 23	8	0.7091 458	90	10
IgD <i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs <i>ATM^{sh477/sh477}</i>	0.547 6	ns	No	Two- tailed	31 , 24	9	0.7061 48	92	10
IgZ <i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs <i>ATM^{sh477/sh477}</i>	0.547 6	ns	No	Two- tailed	31 , 24	9	0.6955 136	94	10

Appendix 3.8 Statistical analysis corresponding to figure 3.11: mRNA expression of senescence markers in adult zebrafish

CCNG1										
Unpaired t test with Welch's correction	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Welch-corrected t, df	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment		
	0.2638	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.202, df=7.956	0.760403	62	10		

p21										
Mann Whitney test	P value	Exact or approximate P value?	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Sum of ranks in column A,B	Mann-Whitney U	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment
	0.4206	Exact	ns	No	Two-tailed	32, 23	8	0.5164229	168	10

P16										
Mann Whitney test	P value	Exact or approximate P value?	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Sum of ranks in column A,B	Mann-Whitney U	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment
	0.4206	Exact	ns	No	Two-tailed	23, 32	8	0.5753064	136	10

p53										
Unpaired t test with Welch's correction	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Welch-corrected t, df	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment		
	0.7800	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=0.2912, df=6.450	0.1733905	352	10		

IL-1β										
Mann Whitney test	P value	Exact or approximate P value?	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Sum of ranks in column A,B	Mann-Whitney U	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment
	0.0556	Exact	ns	No	Two-tailed	18, 37	3	1.596844	20	10

IL-6										
Mann Whitney test	P value	Exact or approximate P value?	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Sum of ranks in column A,B	Mann-Whitney U	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment
	0.8413	Exact	ns	No	Two-tailed	26, 29	11	0.4530262	218	10

Appendix 3.9 Statistical analysis corresponding to figure 3.13: Expression of ATR mRNA is not upregulated in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish

ATM										
Mann-Whitney test	P value	Exact or approximate P value?	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Sum of ranks in column A,B	Mann-Whitney U	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment
	0.1508	Exact	ns	No	Two-tailed	35, 20	5	0.1637558	1644	10

ATR								
Unpaired t test with Welch's correction	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Welch-corrected t, df	Effect Size	No of fish required for 90% power	No of fish in experiment
	0.7919	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=0.2750, df=6.502	0.1741447	1388	10

Appendix 3.10 Statistical analysis corresponding to figure 3.14: Expression of ATR mRNA is not upregulated in ATM^{sh477/sh477} zebrafish after induction of DNA damage

ATM						
Two-way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
IR Dose x Genotype	4.248	0.4155	ns	No		
IR Dose	48.32	0.0200	*	Yes		
Genotype	1.347	0.6417	ns	No		
Šídák's multiple comparisons test ATM^{+/+} vs ATM^{sh477/sh477}	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
0 Gys	-0.03718	-0.4216 to 0.3472	No	ns	0.9590	
8 Gys	0.1330	-0.2514 to 0.5174	No	ns	0.6035	
Šídák's multiple comparisons test IR Dose	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{+/+}	-0.3721	-0.7565 to 0.01233	No	ns	0.0572	
ATM ^{sh477} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-0.2019	-0.5863 to 0.1825	No	ns	0.3400	
ATR						
Two-way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
IR Dose x Genotype	2.128	0.6297	ns	No		
IR Dose	29.83	0.0974	ns	No		
Genotype	0.2695	0.8629	ns	No		
Šídák's multiple comparisons test ATM^{+/+} vs ATM^{sh477/sh477}	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
0 Gys	-0.04218	-0.5490 to 0.4646	No	ns	0.9694	
8 Gys	0.08877	-0.4180 to 0.5956	No	ns	0.8731	
Šídák's multiple comparisons test IR Dose	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{+/+}	-0.3106	-0.8174 to 0.1962	No	ns	0.2452	
ATM ^{sh477} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-0.1797	-0.6864 to 0.3271	No	ns	0.5895	

Appendix 3.11 RNA-binding protein motifs found 100 nt of the ATM^{sh477} allele premature stop codon. Exons 5,6 and 7 of the ATM^{sh477} allele (exons denoted by upper and lower case), bold lettering denotes nucleotides within 100 of the premature stop codon (red). RNA binding motif (pink) directly precedes the premature stop codon (Ray et al., 2013, Lindeboom et al., 2016). Note deletion mutation denoted by a dashed line.

tttgctggatttgttctgtgggctgtttaataggggaaccagggtcaatcaacagagt
caagtgagtcgtatcatctacacgggtggtttggggctgtttgtgtccaaacagagggga
ttgtcccacactcttttcaacttctttcttaaagctctgagcaacagcagGGCAGAA
AAACAGCTGATGGTTCTGGAGAATCTGGTATCTGCTGTAAATGTGTTCCCT**GCGCTCA**
GTGCTTCTCTCCTGCAGGAAGAGGGTGTGTGGTCTGGGT.....GGTCCTGTCAGATAT
GCTGTGCGTTTATACTGGGATGAGACCCAGCTCAGTACTTAAAGAAGAGCTCGTGAA
ATTTTCCAAATTCAGCTTTTGTTCATCACCCAAAGGTGCAAAGACTATTGAGAC
AGgtgcacaggctcaagactgggtgaaatggcgtagtcagctctgcacgctctatga
cgcccttgttagtgagatcagtcagatcggcagcagaggcaaatacgccacaggctc
acgccatatagctgtgaaagaaaatcttattgaactgacagctgatgtatgccacca
g

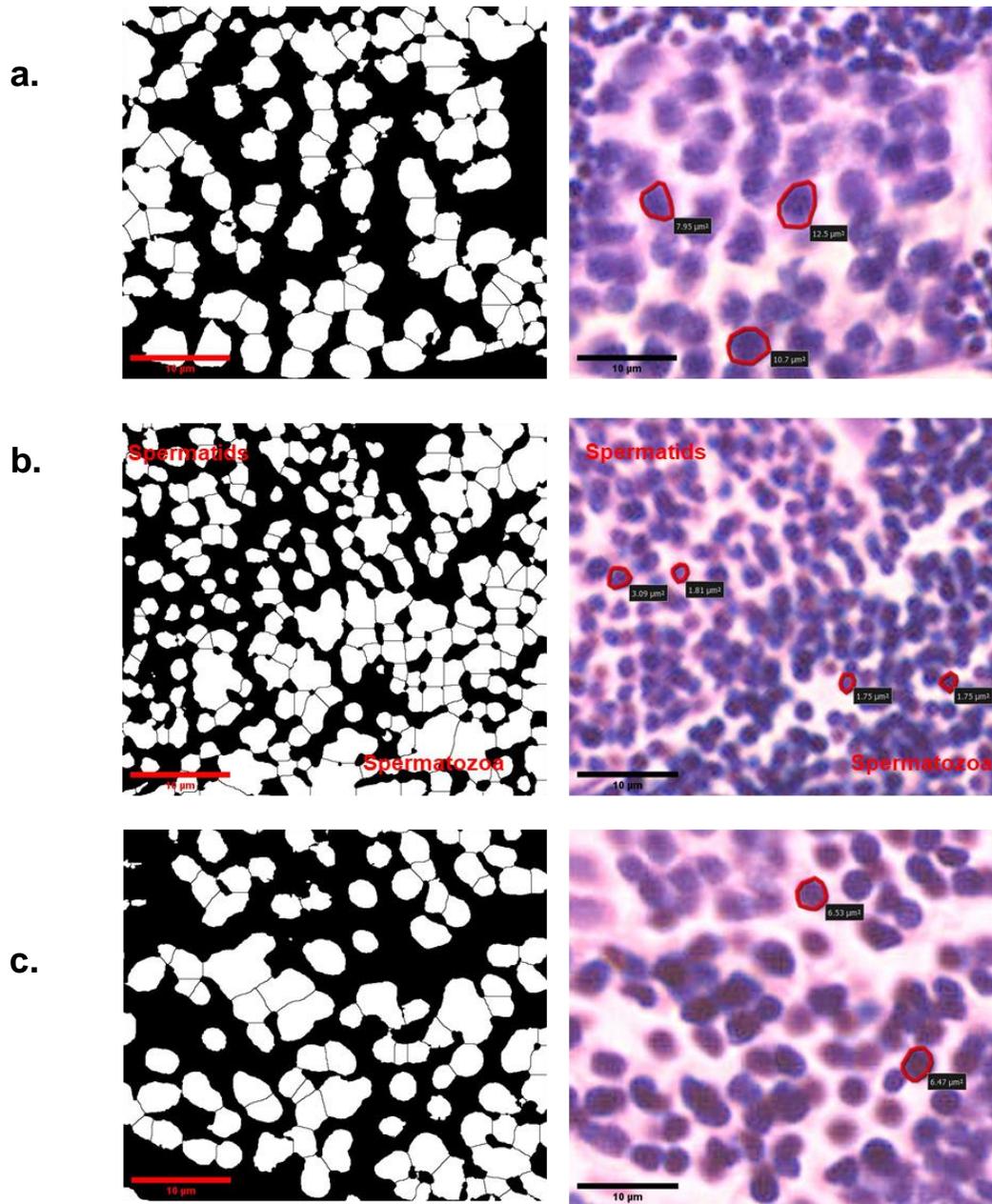
Appendix 4

Appendix 4.1 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to figure 4.4: Neoplastic Sertoli cell growth disrupts the organisational structure of ATM^{sh477/sh477} testes

Figure b: Contribution of Sertoli and Leydig cells to the makeup of the testes

Sertoli Cells						
Welch's t test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	P	t, df
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	<0.0001	****	Yes	Two-tailed		t=7.031, df=20.12
Leydig Cells						
Mann Whitney test	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	P	Mann-Whitney U
ATM ^{+/+} vs ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.7759	ns	No	Two-tailed		177.5

Appendix 4.2 Method used to quantify the area of H&E stained cells in the testes of $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Automated analysis could not be carried out on binary images (**left panel**) as there was considerable overlap in the cells. Therefore, analysis was carried out by drawing a 10 point perimeter around each cell to be quantified and the area (μm^2) of the cell measured (**right panel**). Cells to measured were chosen based on morphological resemblance to the cell stage that was being quantified and the ability to draw around easily disenable cell borders. **a.** $ATM^{+/+}$ Primary Spermatocytes **b.** $ATM^{+/+}$ Spermatids and mature spermatozoa **c.** A mixture of overlapping cell types from $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$



Appendix 4.3 Statistical analysis corresponding to figure 4.7: Histological comparison of spermatogenesis between $ATM^{+/+}$ and $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish at 3 months

<i>Kruskal-Wallis test</i>	P value	P value summary	Do the medians vary signif. (P < 0.05)?	Number of groups	Kruskal-Wallis statistic
	<0.0001	****	Yes	5	330.3
Dunn's multiple comparisons test	Mean rank diff.	Significant?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
$ATM^{+/+}$ Primary Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Primary Spermatocytes	1.707	No	ns	>0.9999	
$ATM^{+/+}$ Primary Spermatocyte vs $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Late Spermatocytes	113.9	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{+/+}$ Primary Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Spermatids	186.7	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{+/+}$ Primary Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Mature Spermatozoa	256.9	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Primary Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Late Spermatocytes	112.2	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Primary Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Spermatids	185.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Primary Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Mature Spermatozoa	255.1	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Late Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Spermatids	72.83	Yes	***	0.0004	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ Late Spermatocytes vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Mature Spermatozoa	143.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
$ATM^{+/+}$ Spermatids vs $ATM^{+/+}$ Mature Spermatozoa	70.13	Yes	***	0.0007	

Appendix 5

Appendix 5.1 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.1: *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish larvae do no exhibit any detectable swimming abnormalities at 5dpf

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two-way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x Genotype	0.06515	0.3700	ns	No		
Light Driving	57.86	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.02201	0.8026	ns	No		
Subject	21.91	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P
Dark						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	1.838	-36.97 to 40.64	No	ns	0.9932	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{sh447/sh447}</i>	21.51	-22.17 to 65.19	No	ns	0.4800	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{sh447/sh447}</i>	19.67	-18.16 to 57.50	No	ns	0.4412	
Light						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	5.569	-33.24 to 44.38	No	ns	0.9393	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{sh447/sh447}</i>	-2.605	-46.28 to 41.07	No	ns	0.9893	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{sh447/sh447}</i>	-8.174	-46.00 to 29.65	No	ns	0.8678	
Sídák's multiple comparisons test Dark v Light	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i>	376.4	331.1 to 421.8	Yes	****	<0.0001	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	380.2	347.5 to 412.8	Yes	****	<0.0001	
<i>ATM^{sh447/sh447}</i>	352.3	308.7 to 395.9	Yes	****	<0.0001	

Figure d: Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases

Two-way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x Genotype	0.09834	0.2179	ns	No		
Light Driving	40.92	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.008487	0.9548	ns	No		
Subject	40.32	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P Value
Dark						
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-1.090	-8.302 to 6.122	No	ns	0.9330	
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447}	0.8496	-7.252 to 8.951	No	ns	0.9671	
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447}	1.940	-5.072 to 8.951	No	ns	0.7927	
Light						
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	1.017	-6.195 to 8.229	No	ns	0.9414	
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447}	-2.359	-10.46 to 5.742	No	ns	0.7731	
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447}	-3.376	-10.39 to 3.635	No	ns	0.4955	
Sídák's multiple comparisons test Dark v Light	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P Value
ATM ^{+/+}	47.48	41.39 to 53.56	Yes	****	<0.0001	
ATM ^{+/sh477}	49.59	45.20 to 53.97	Yes	****	<0.0001	
ATM ^{sh447/sh447}	44.27	38.44 to 50.10	Yes	****	<0.0001	

Appendix 5.2 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.2: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae on a $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ (null) background do not exhibit any detectable swimming abnormalities at 5dpf

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two-way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x Genotype	0.1015	0.3828	ns	No		
Light Driving	54.21	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.3212	0.2107	ns	No		
Subject	26.56	<0.0001	****	Yes		

Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Dark						
$ATM^{+/+}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$ $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	-27.50	-67.86 to 12.86	No	ns	0.2459
$ATM^{+/+}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ vs. $ATM^{sh447/sh447}$ $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	-41.09	-87.58 to 5.392	No	ns	0.2459
$ATM^{+/sh477}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ vs. $ATM^{sh447/sh447}$ $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	-13.59	-54.16 to 26.97	No	ns	0.2459
Light						
$ATM^{+/+}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$ $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	-16.05	-56.41 to 24.32	No	ns	0.6188
$ATM^{+/+}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ vs. $ATM^{sh447/sh447}$ $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	-9.636	-56.12 to 36.85	No	ns	0.8774
$ATM^{+/sh477}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$ vs. $ATM^{sh447/sh447}$ $TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	6.411	-34.15 to 46.98	No	ns	0.9268
Šídák's multiple comparisons test	Dark v Light	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
$ATM^{+/+}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	262.0	223.0 to 301.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
$ATM^{+/sh477}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	273.5	245.4 to 301.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
$ATM^{sh447/sh447}$	$TDP1^{sh475/sh475}$	293.5	254.2 to 332.8	Yes	****	<0.0001

Figure d: Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases

Two-way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x Genotype	0.02989	0.7469	ns	No		
Light Driving	34.29	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.2273	0.5485	ns	No		
Subject	48.89	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P
Dark						
ATM ^{+/+} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	-3.959	-12.47 to 4.555	No	ns	0.5189	
ATM ^{+/+} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	-3.105	-12.91 to 6.700	No	ns	0.7372	
ATM ^{+/sh477} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	0.8539	-7.702 to 9.410	No	ns	0.9701	
Light						
ATM ^{+/+} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	-2.971	-11.48 to 5.543	No	ns	0.6907	
ATM ^{+/+} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	-0.2255	-10.03 to 9.580	No	ns	0.9984	
ATM ^{+/sh477} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475} vs. ATM ^{sh447/sh447} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	2.745	-5.811 to 11.30	No	ns	0.7313	
Šídák's multiple comparisons test Dark v Light	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P
ATM ^{+/+} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	36.00	29.47 to 42.52	Yes	****	<0.0001	
ATM ^{+/sh477} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	36.98	32.28 to 41.68	Yes	****	<0.0001	
ATM ^{sh447/sh447} TDP ₁ ^{sh475/sh475}	38.87	32.30 to 45.45	Yes	****	<0.0001	

Appendix 5.3 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.3: Optimisation of DMSO treatment at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

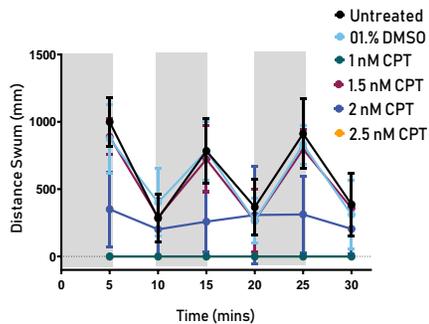
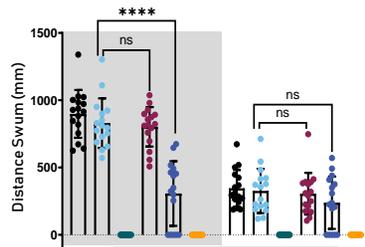
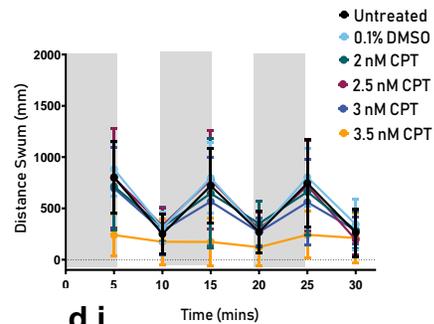
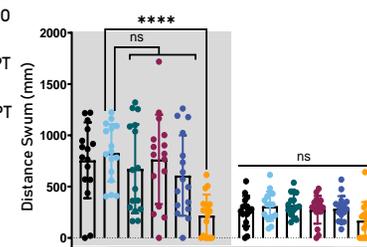
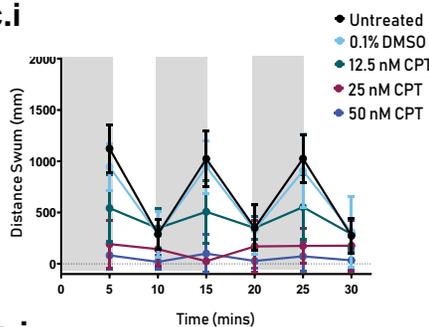
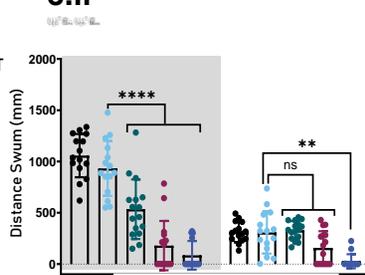
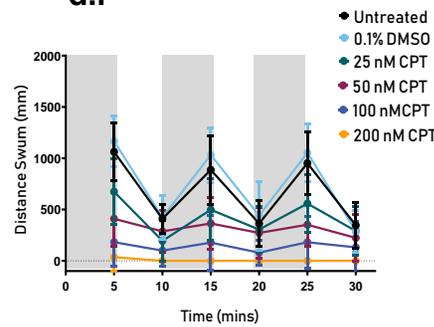
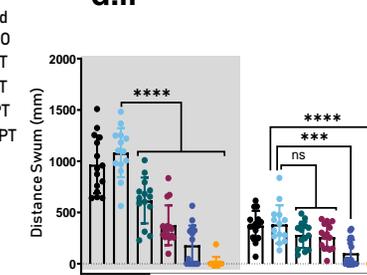
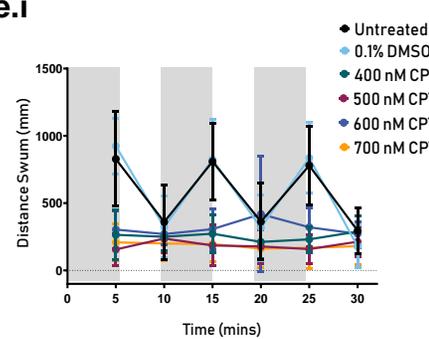
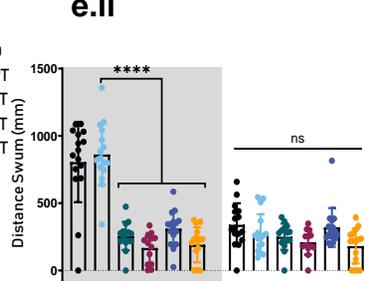
Two-way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x DMSO Conc.	4.291	0.0003	***	Yes		
Light Driving	45.29	<0.0001	****	Yes		
DMSO Conc	10.27	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Subject	21.52	0.2446	ns	No		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	P
Dark						
Untreated vs. 1% DMSO	318.1	194.8 to 441.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-13.83	-137.1 to 109.5	No	ns	0.9914	
Untreated vs. 0.01% DMSO	75.72	-47.57 to 199.0	No	ns	0.3855	
1% DMSO vs. 0.1% DMSO	-331.9	-455.2 to -208.7	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1% DMSO vs. 0.01% DMSO	-242.4	-365.7 to -119.1	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO vs. 0.01% DMSO	89.55	-33.73 to 212.8	No	ns	0.2388	
Light						
Untreated vs. 1% DMSO	93.19	-30.09 to 216.5	No	ns	0.2072	
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	42.53	-80.75 to 165.8	No	ns	0.8077	
Untreated vs. 0.01% DMSO	34.53	-88.75 to 157.8	No	ns	0.8865	
1% DMSO vs. 0.1% DMSO	-50.66	-173.9 to 72.63	No	ns	0.7110	
1% DMSO vs. 0.01% DMSO	-58.66	-181.9 to 64.63	No	ns	0.6063	
0.1% DMSO vs. 0.01% DMSO	-8.001	-131.3 to 115.3	No	ns	0.9983	

Figure d: Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases

Two-way RM ANOVA							
Alpha		0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?			
Light Driving x DMSO Conc.	3.539	0.0005	***	Yes			
Light Driving	37.86	<0.0001	****	Yes			
DMSO Conc	15.37	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Subject	26.39	0.0162	*	Yes			

Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Dark						
Untreated DMSO	vs. 1%	56.50	36.40 to 76.60	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated DMSO	vs. 0.1%	3.261	-16.84 to 23.36	No	ns	0.9749
Untreated DMSO	vs. 0.01%	8.675	-11.42 to 28.77	No	ns	0.6783
1% DMSO	vs. 0.1%	-53.24	-73.34 to -33.14	Yes	****	<0.0001
1% DMSO	vs. 0.01%	-47.83	-67.93 to -27.73	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO	vs. 0.01%	5.414	-14.69 to 25.51	No	ns	0.8976
Light						
Untreated DMSO	vs. 1%	24.51	4.409 to 44.61	Yes	**	0.0098
Untreated DMSO	vs. 0.1%	10.00	-10.10 to 30.10	No	ns	0.5705
Untreated DMSO	vs. 0.01%	8.325	-11.77 to 28.42	No	ns	0.7059
1% DMSO	vs. 0.1%	-14.51	-34.61 to 5.591	No	ns	0.2440
1% DMSO	vs. 0.01%	-16.18	-36.28 to 3.916	No	ns	0.1610
0.1% DMSO	vs. 0.01%	-1.675	-21.77 to 18.42	No	ns	0.9964

Appendix 5.4.1 Optimisation 3 of CPT treatment on zebrafish embryos and larvae in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf, distance swum analysis. Zebrafish larvae were untreated, treated with 0.1% DMSO or 0.1% DMSO and CPT in E3 at 8, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hpf in 96 well plates. At 5dpf, zebrafish were assayed by being subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) for 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** embryos treated at 8 hpf. **b.** embryos treated at 24 hpf. **c.** embryos treated at 48 hpf. **d.** embryos treated at 72 hpf. **e.** larvae treated at 96 hpf **i.** Average distance travelled by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **ii** Average distance travelled in dark and light phases, individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of distance travelled across the 3 dark and 3 light phases. Data was analysed by Two-way ANOVA with RM with a post hoc Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.5.2** and *n* numbers for each experiment in **appendix 5.5.5 b.**

a.i**a.ii****b.i****b.ii****c.i****c.ii****d.i****d.ii****e.i****e.ii**

Appendix 5.4.2 Statistical Analysis of figures a.ii-e.ii in appendix 5.5.1: Optimisation 3 of CPT treatment on zebrafish embryos and larvae in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf, distance swum analysis.

ii. Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

8 hpf treated					
Two-way RM ANOVA					
Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	12.47	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Light Driving	14.74	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	54.71	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	10.84	0.0023	**	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Light Driving x DMSO Conc	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Dark					
Untreated vs. 01.% DMSO	68.47	-82.69 to 219.6	No	ns	0.7817
Untreated vs. 1 nM CPT	898.2	744.6 to 1052	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 1.5 nM CPT	95.57	-55.59 to 246.7	No	ns	0.4543
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	591.5	440.4 to 742.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	898.2	738.6 to 1058	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT	829.8	676.1 to 983.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 1.5 nM CPT	27.10	-124.1 to 178.3	No	ns	0.9955
01.% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	523.1	371.9 to 674.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	829.8	670.1 to 989.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 1.5 nM CPT	-802.7	-956.3 to -649.0	Yes	****	<0.0001

1 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	-306.7	-460.4 to -153.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	0.000	-162.0 to 162.0	No	ns	>0.9999
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	496.0	344.8 to 647.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	802.7	643.0 to 962.3	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	306.7	147.1 to 466.3	Yes	****	<0.0001

Light					
Untreated vs. 01.% DMSO	19.30	-131.9 to 170.4	No	ns	0.9991
Untreated vs. 1 nM CPT	345.4	191.7 to 499.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 1.5 nM CPT	39.95	-111.2 to 191.1	No	ns	0.9735
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	107.3	-43.89 to 258.4	No	ns	0.3213
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	345.4	185.7 to 505.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT	326.1	172.4 to 479.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 1.5 nM CPT	20.66	-130.5 to 171.8	No	ns	0.9988
01.% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	87.97	-63.18 to 239.1	No	ns	0.5486
01.% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	326.1	166.5 to 485.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 1.5 nM CPT	-305.4	-459.1 to -151.8	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	-238.1	-391.8 to -84.46	Yes	***	0.0002
1 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	5.684e-014	-162.0 to 162.0	No	ns	>0.9999
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	67.31	-83.84 to 218.5	No	ns	0.7937
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	305.4	145.8 to 465.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	238.1	78.48 to 397.8	Yes	***	0.0004

24 hpf treated

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha 0.05

Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	5.175	0.0001	***	Yes	
Light Driving	27.23	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	11.81	0.0002	***	Yes	
Subject	39.86	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS)	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
Dark					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-71.33	-351.2 to 208.5	No	ns	0.9774
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	82.39	-197.4 to 362.2	No	ns	0.9579
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	-8.944	-288.8 to 270.9	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 3 nM CPT	148.1	-131.8 to 427.9	No	ns	0.6491
Untreated vs. 3.5 nM CPT	537.8	257.9 to 817.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	153.7	-126.1 to 433.6	No	ns	0.6112
0.1% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	62.39	-217.4 to 342.2	No	ns	0.9876
0.1% DMSO vs. 3 nM CPT	219.4	-60.43 to 499.2	No	ns	0.2167
0.1% DMSO vs. 3.5 nM CPT	609.1	329.3 to 888.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	-91.33	-371.2 to 188.5	No	ns	0.9355
2 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	65.68	-214.2 to 345.5	No	ns	0.9844
2 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	455.4	175.6 to 735.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	157.0	-122.8 to 436.8	No	ns	0.5888
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	546.7	266.9 to 826.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
3 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	389.7	109.9 to 669.5	Yes	**	0.0012
Light					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-46.96	-326.8 to 232.9	No	ns	0.9967
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	-57.62	-337.4 to 222.2	No	ns	0.9914
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	-12.29	-292.1 to 267.5	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 3 nM CPT	-22.81	-302.6 to 257.0	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 3.5 nM CPT	92.55	-187.3 to 372.4	No	ns	0.9319
0.1% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	-10.66	-290.5 to 269.2	No	ns	>0.9999
0.1% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	34.67	-245.2 to 314.5	No	ns	0.9992
0.1% DMSO vs. 3 nM CPT	24.14	-255.7 to 304.0	No	ns	0.9999
0.1% DMSO vs. 3.5 nM CPT	139.5	-140.3 to 419.3	No	ns	0.7049
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	45.33	-234.5 to 325.2	No	ns	0.9972
2 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	34.80	-245.0 to 314.6	No	ns	0.9992
2 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	150.2	-129.7 to 430.0	No	ns	0.6351
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	-10.53	-290.4 to 269.3	No	ns	>0.9999
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	104.8	-175.0 to 384.7	No	ns	0.8891
3 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	115.4	-164.5 to 395.2	No	ns	0.8423

48 hpf treated

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha					
	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	15.38	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Light Driving	19.11	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	41.19	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	16.64	0.0010	***	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
Dark					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	124.9	-70.53 to 320.4	No	ns	0.3974
Untreated vs. 12.5 nM CPT	523.0	330.7 to 715.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	878.2	685.8 to 1071	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	972.8	773.8 to 1172	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT	398.1	205.7 to 590.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	753.3	560.9 to 945.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	847.8	648.9 to 1047	Yes	****	<0.0001
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	355.1	165.9 to 544.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	449.7	253.8 to 645.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	94.56	-101.3 to 290.5	No	ns	0.6707
Light					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	3.020	-192.4 to 198.5	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 12.5 nM CPT	-16.92	-209.3 to 175.5	No	ns	0.9992
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	154.6	-37.78 to 347.0	No	ns	0.1781
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	284.9	85.98 to 483.8	Yes	**	0.0011
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT	-19.94	-212.3 to 172.4	No	ns	0.9985
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	151.6	-40.80 to 344.0	No	ns	0.1944
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	281.9	82.96 to 480.8	Yes	**	0.0013
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	171.5	-17.73 to 360.8	No	ns	0.0954
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	301.8	105.9 to 497.7	Yes	***	0.0004
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	130.3	-65.61 to 326.2	No	ns	0.3562

72 hpf treated

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha 0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	12.46	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Light Driving	17.05	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	49.31	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	9.865	0.7309	ns	No	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
<i>Dark</i>					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-116.2	-304.9 to 72.63	No	ns	0.4851
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	349.7	160.9 to 538.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	592.1	406.6 to 777.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 100 nM CPT	787.3	604.7 to 969.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 200 nM CPT	952.6	760.1 to 1145	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	465.9	273.9 to 657.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	708.2	519.4 to 897.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 100 nM CPT	903.4	717.5 to 1089	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 200 nM CPT	1069	873.1 to 1264	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	242.3	53.57 to 431.1	Yes	**	0.0039
25 nM CPT vs. 100 nM CPT	437.6	251.7 to 623.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	602.9	407.2 to 798.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
50 nM CPT vs. 100 nM CPT	195.2	12.65 to 377.8	Yes	*	0.0285
50 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	360.5	168.0 to 553.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
100 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	165.3	-24.39 to 355.0	No	ns	0.1263
<i>Light</i>					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-11.76	-200.5 to 177.0	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	90.54	-98.24 to 279.3	No	ns	0.7370
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	112.1	-73.37 to 297.6	No	ns	0.5053
Untreated vs. 100 nM CPT	269.5	86.96 to 452.1	Yes	**	0.0005
Untreated vs. 200 nM CPT	372.7	180.2 to 565.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	102.3	-89.70 to 294.3	No	ns	0.6411
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	123.9	-64.88 to 312.7	No	ns	0.4103
0.1% DMSO vs. 100 nM CPT	281.3	95.39 to 467.2	Yes	***	0.0003

0.1% DMSO vs. 200 nM CPT	384.5	188.8 to 580.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	21.59	-167.2 to 210.4	No	ns	0.9995
25 nM CPT vs. 100 nM CPT	179.0	-6.919 to 364.9	No	ns	0.0664
25 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	282.2	86.54 to 477.9	Yes	***	0.0007
50 nM CPT vs. 100 nM CPT	157.4	-25.17 to 340.0	No	ns	0.1342
50 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	260.6	68.11 to 453.1	Yes	**	0.0019
100 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	103.2	-86.47 to 292.9	No	ns	0.6199

96 hpf

Two-way RM ANOVA

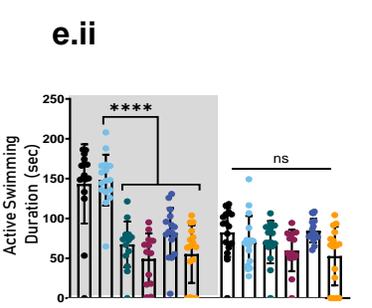
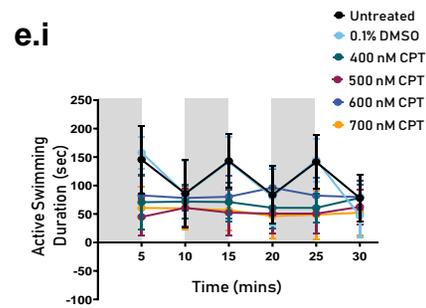
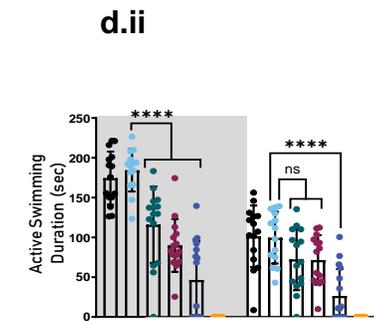
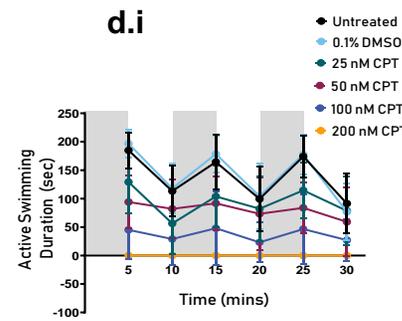
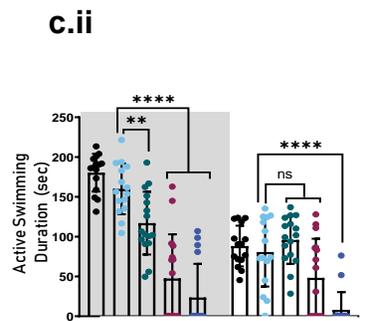
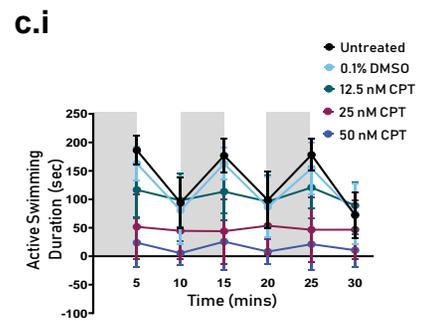
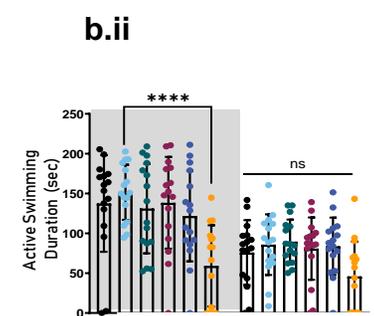
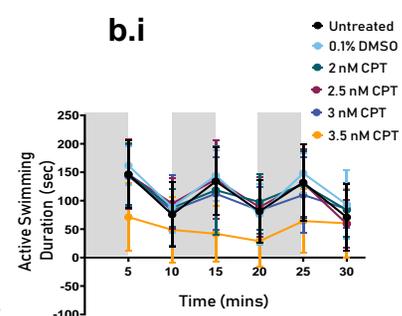
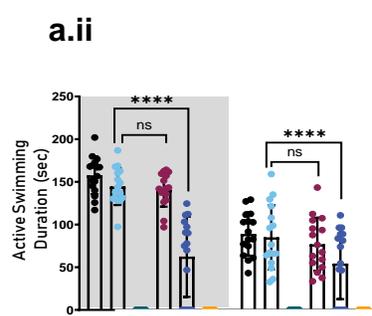
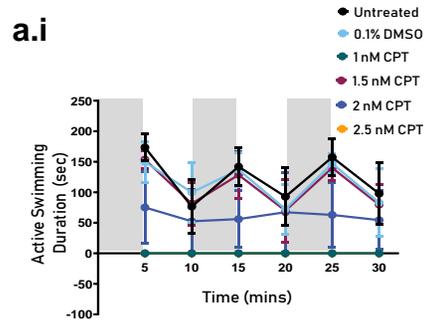
Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	22.03	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Light Driving	9.462	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	35.62	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	24.40	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					

Dark

Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-56.16	-219.6 to 107.3	No	ns	0.9205
Untreated vs. 400 nM CPT	549.2	383.1 to 715.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 500 nM CPT	638.6	466.0 to 811.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 600 nM CPT	495.1	331.7 to 658.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 700 nM CPT	614.6	451.2 to 778.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 400 nM CPT	605.4	439.3 to 771.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 500 nM CPT	694.8	522.2 to 867.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 600 nM CPT	551.3	387.9 to 714.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 700 nM CPT	670.8	507.3 to 834.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
400 nM CPT vs. 500 nM CPT	89.41	-85.76 to 264.6	No	ns	0.6831
400 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT	-54.10	-220.2 to 112.0	No	ns	0.9359
400 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT	65.36	-100.8 to 231.5	No	ns	0.8666
500 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT	-143.5	-316.1 to 29.10	No	ns	0.1633
500 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT	-24.05	-196.7 to 148.6	No	ns	0.9986
600 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT	119.5	-43.97 to 282.9	No	ns	0.2888
Light					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	66.16	-97.27 to 229.6	No	ns	0.8520

<i>Untreated vs. 400 nM CPT</i>	88.85	-77.29 to 255.0	No	ns	0.6381
<i>Untreated vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	129.6	-42.97 to 302.2	No	ns	0.2599
<i>Untreated vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	18.88	-144.5 to 182.3	No	ns	0.9994
<i>Untreated vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	157.9	-5.556 to 321.3	No	ns	0.0649
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 400 nM CPT</i>	22.68	-143.5 to 188.8	No	ns	0.9988
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	63.47	-109.1 to 236.1	No	ns	0.8965
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-47.28	-210.7 to 116.2	No	ns	0.9608
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	91.71	-71.72 to 255.1	No	ns	0.5883
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	40.78	-134.4 to 215.9	No	ns	0.9849
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-69.96	-236.1 to 96.17	No	ns	0.8297
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	69.03	-97.10 to 235.2	No	ns	0.8376
<i>500 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-110.7	-283.4 to 61.86	No	ns	0.4372
<i>500 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	28.25	-144.4 to 200.9	No	ns	0.9971
<i>600 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	139.0	-24.44 to 302.4	No	ns	0.1449

Appendix 5.4.3 Optimisation 3 of CPT treatment on zebrafish embryos and larvae in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf duration of active swimming analysis. Zebrafish larvae were untreated, treated with 0.1% DMSO or 0.1% DMSO and CPT in E3 at 8, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hpf in 96 well plates. At 5dpf, zebrafish were assayed by being subjected to alternating dark and light cycles (light driving phases) for 5 mins each for a total of 30 mins, during which their swimming was tracked. **Note: Grey panels in graph represent dark cycles.** **a.** embryos treated at 8 hpf. **b.** embryos treated at 24 hpf. **c.** embryos treated at 48 hpf. **d.** embryos treated at 72 hpf. **e.** larvae treated at 96 hpf **i.** Average duration of active swimming by each genotype in each of the light driving phases. **ii.** . Average duration of active swimming spent in dark and light phases, individual data points represent the mean value per embryo of active duration across the 3 dark and 3 light driving phases. Data was analysed by Two-way ANOVA with RM with a post hoc Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Error bars represent SD. Statistical analysis can be found in **appendix 5.4.4** and n numbers for each experiment in **appendix 5.4.5 b.**



Appendix 5.4.4 Statistical Analysis of figures a.ii-e.ii in appendix 5.5.3: Optimisation 3 of CPT treatment on zebrafish embryos and larvae in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf duration of active swimming analysis

ii. Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

8 hpf treated						
Two-way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x CPT Conc	6.154	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Light Driving	7.187	<0.0001	****	Yes		
CPT Conc	68.74	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Subject	12.45	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark						
Untreated vs. 01.% DMSO	13.14	-14.12 to 40.40	No	ns	0.7336	
Untreated vs. 1 nM CPT	157.7	130.4 to 184.9	Yes	****	<0.0001	
Untreated vs. 1.5 nM CPT	16.94	-10.31 to 44.20	No	ns	0.4741	
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	95.24	67.98 to 122.5	Yes	****	<0.0001	
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	157.7	128.9 to 186.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
01.% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT	144.5	117.3 to 171.8	Yes	****	<0.0001	
01.% DMSO vs. 1.5 nM CPT	3.804	-23.45 to 31.06	No	ns	0.9986	
01.% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	82.10	54.84 to 109.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
01.% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	144.5	115.7 to 173.3	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 1.5 nM CPT	-140.7	-168.0 to -113.5	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	-62.42	-89.68 to -35.16	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	2.842e-014	-28.79 to 28.79	No	ns	>0.9999	

1.5 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	78.29	51.04 to 105.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	140.7	111.9 to 169.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	62.42	33.63 to 91.21	Yes	****	<0.0001
Light					
Untreated vs. 01.% DMSO	3.967	-23.29 to 31.23	No	ns	0.9983
Untreated vs. 1 nM CPT	88.98	61.72 to 116.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 1.5 nM CPT	12.07	-15.19 to 39.33	No	ns	0.7979
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	34.70	7.444 to 61.96	Yes	**	0.0043
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	88.98	60.19 to 117.8	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT	85.01	57.75 to 112.3	Yes	****	<0.0001
01.% DMSO vs. 1.5 nM CPT	8.100	-19.16 to 35.36	No	ns	0.9562
01.% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	30.74	3.477 to 57.99	Yes	*	0.0172
01.% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	85.01	56.22 to 113.8	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 1.5 nM CPT	-76.91	-104.2 to -49.65	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	-54.28	-81.54 to -27.02	Yes	****	<0.0001
1 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	2.842e-014	-28.79 to 28.79	No	ns	>0.9999
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2 nM CPT	22.64	-4.623 to 49.89	No	ns	0.1644
1.5 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	76.91	48.12 to 105.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	54.28	25.49 to 83.07	Yes	****	<0.0001

24 hpf treated

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	2.581	0.0006	***	Yes	

Light Driving	17.22	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	15.30	0.0004	***	Yes	
Subject	55.22	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS)	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
Dark					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-14.09	-61.32 to 33.15	No	ns	0.9556
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	6.254	-40.98 to 53.49	No	ns	0.9989
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	-0.9479	-48.18 to 46.28	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 3 nM CPT	15.64	-31.60 to 62.87	No	ns	0.9317
Untreated vs. 3.5 nM CPT	78.29	31.06 to 125.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	20.34	-26.89 to 67.57	No	ns	0.8162
0.1% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	13.14	-34.09 to 60.37	No	ns	0.9670
0.1% DMSO vs. 3 nM CPT	29.72	-17.51 to 76.96	No	ns	0.4602
0.1% DMSO vs. 3.5 nM CPT	92.38	45.15 to 139.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	-7.202	-54.43 to 40.03	No	ns	0.9979
2 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	9.381	-37.85 to 56.61	No	ns	0.9927
2 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	72.04	24.81 to 119.3	Yes	***	0.0003
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	16.58	-30.65 to 63.82	No	ns	0.9137
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	79.24	32.01 to 126.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
3 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	62.66	15.43 to 109.9	Yes	**	0.0025
Light					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-9.933	-57.17 to 37.30	No	ns	0.9905
Untreated vs. 2 nM CPT	-13.76	-60.99 to 33.47	No	ns	0.9598
Untreated vs. 2.5 nM CPT	-4.973	-52.21 to 42.26	No	ns	0.9997
Untreated vs. 3 nM CPT	-7.890	-55.12 to 39.34	No	ns	0.9968
Untreated vs. 3.5 nM CPT	29.90	-17.33 to 77.13	No	ns	0.4532
0.1% DMSO vs. 2 nM CPT	-3.827	-51.06 to 43.41	No	ns	>0.9999
0.1% DMSO vs. 2.5 nM CPT	4.960	-42.27 to 52.19	No	ns	0.9997
0.1% DMSO vs. 3 nM CPT	2.044	-45.19 to 49.28	No	ns	>0.9999
0.1% DMSO vs. 3.5 nM CPT	39.84	-7.397 to 87.07	No	ns	0.1517
2 nM CPT vs. 2.5 nM CPT	8.788	-38.45 to 56.02	No	ns	0.9946
2 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	5.871	-41.36 to 53.10	No	ns	0.9992
2 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	43.66	-3.570 to 90.90	No	ns	0.0880
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3 nM CPT	-2.917	-50.15 to 44.32	No	ns	>0.9999
2.5 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	34.87	-12.36 to 82.11	No	ns	0.2782
3 nM CPT vs. 3.5 nM CPT	37.79	-9.441 to 85.02	No	ns	0.1975

48 hpf treated

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	8.180	<0.0001	****	Yes	

Light Driving	10.28	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	49.59	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	24.87	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS)	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
Dark					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	20.45	-17.91 to 58.80	No	ns	0.5820
Untreated vs. 12.5 nM CPT	63.42	25.67 to 101.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	133.0	95.23 to 170.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	156.9	119.1 to 194.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT	42.98	5.225 to 80.73	Yes	*	0.0170
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	112.5	74.78 to 150.3	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	136.4	98.69 to 174.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	69.56	32.42 to 106.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	93.47	56.33 to 130.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	23.91	-13.23 to 61.05	No	ns	0.3902
Light					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	7.531	-30.83 to 45.89	No	ns	0.9827
Untreated vs. 12.5 nM CPT	-7.801	-45.55 to 29.95	No	ns	0.9791
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	39.86	2.112 to 77.62	Yes	*	0.0329
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	80.07	42.32 to 117.8	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT	-15.33	-53.08 to 22.42	No	ns	0.7948
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	32.33	-5.419 to 70.08	No	ns	0.1308
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	72.54	34.79 to 110.3	Yes	****	<0.0001
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	47.67	10.53 to 84.80	Yes	**	0.0047
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	87.87	50.73 to 125.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	40.21	3.068 to 77.34	Yes	*	0.0267

72 hpf treated

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	5.320	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Light Driving	9.244	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	61.13	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	14.83	0.0350	*	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS)	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
Dark					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-9.904	-46.14 to 26.33	No	ns	0.9693
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	58.49	22.89 to 94.10	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	84.54	48.94 to 120.1	Yes	****	<0.0001

Untreated vs. 100 nMCPT	127.9	92.82 to 162.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 200 nM CPT	174.4	139.3 to 209.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	68.40	32.16 to 104.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	94.45	58.21 to 130.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 100 nMCPT	137.8	102.1 to 173.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 200 nM CPT	184.3	148.6 to 220.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	26.05	-9.556 to 61.65	No	ns	0.2877
25 nM CPT vs. 100 nMCPT	69.37	34.32 to 104.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	115.9	80.85 to 150.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
50 nM CPT vs. 100 nMCPT	43.32	8.274 to 78.36	Yes	**	0.0062
50 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	89.85	54.80 to 124.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
100 nMCPT vs. 200 nM CPT	46.53	12.06 to 81.01	Yes	**	0.0020
Light					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	1.855	-34.38 to 38.09	No	ns	>0.9999
Untreated vs. 25 nM CPT	29.03	-6.578 to 64.63	No	ns	0.1803
Untreated vs. 50 nM CPT	29.91	-5.696 to 65.51	No	ns	0.1548
Untreated vs. 100 nMCPT	74.92	39.88 to 110.0	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 200 nM CPT	101.4	66.35 to 136.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT	27.17	-9.063 to 63.41	No	ns	0.2614
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	28.05	-8.181 to 64.29	No	ns	0.2288
0.1% DMSO vs. 100 nMCPT	73.07	37.39 to 108.8	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO vs. 200 nM CPT	99.54	63.86 to 135.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	0.8822	-34.72 to 36.49	No	ns	>0.9999
25 nM CPT vs. 100 nMCPT	45.90	10.85 to 80.94	Yes	**	0.0030
25 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	72.37	37.32 to 107.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
50 nM CPT vs. 100 nMCPT	45.02	9.972 to 80.06	Yes	**	0.0039
50 nM CPT vs. 200 nM CPT	71.49	36.44 to 106.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
100 nMCPT vs. 200 nM CPT	26.47	-8.003 to 60.94	No	ns	0.2371

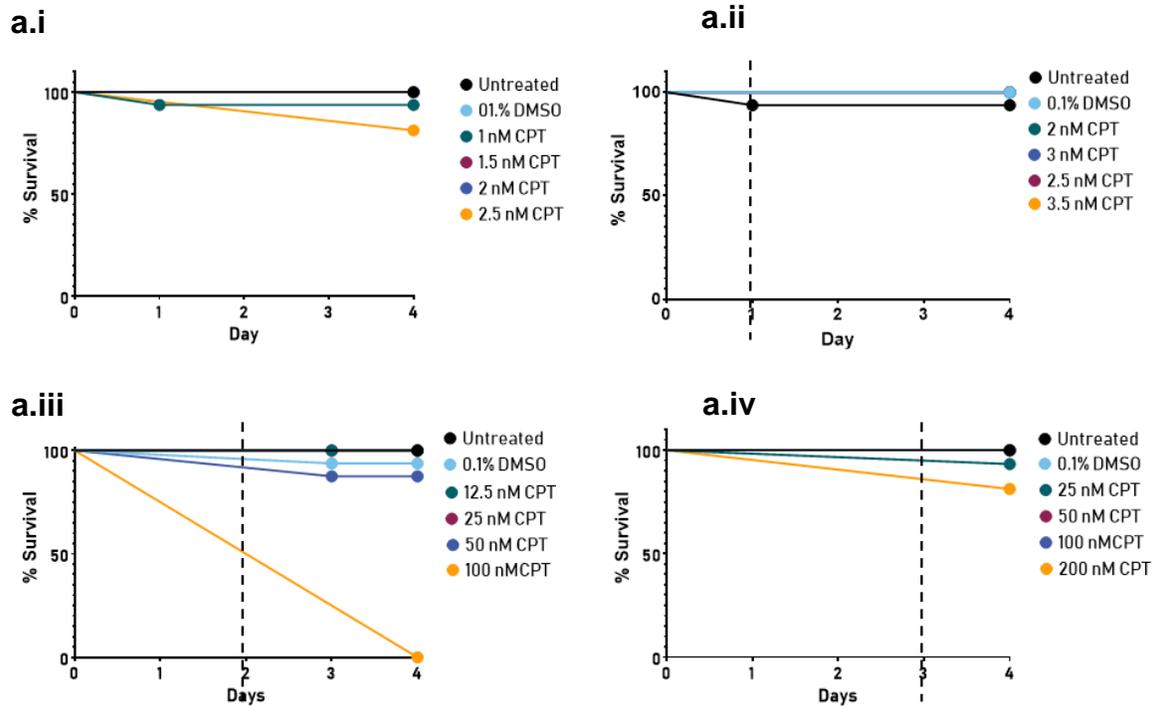
96 hpf

Two-way RM ANOVA

Alpha					
		0.05			
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
Light Driving x CPT Conc	15.36	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Light Driving	5.387	<0.0001	****	Yes	
CPT Conc	28.64	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Subject	41.88	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Light Driving x DMSO Conc					
Dark					
Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO	-4.723	-37.85 to 28.40	No	ns	0.9985
Untreated vs. 400 nM CPT	75.83	42.16 to 109.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
Untreated vs. 500 nM CPT	94.04	59.06 to 129.0	Yes	****	<0.0001

<i>Untreated vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	61.60	28.47 to 94.72	Yes	****	<0.0001
<i>Untreated vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	88.01	54.88 to 121.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 400 nM CPT</i>	80.55	46.88 to 114.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	98.77	63.78 to 133.8	Yes	****	<0.0001
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	66.32	33.19 to 99.45	Yes	****	<0.0001
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	92.73	59.60 to 125.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	18.21	-17.29 to 53.72	No	ns	0.6785
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-14.24	-47.91 to 19.44	No	ns	0.8274
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	12.17	-21.50 to 45.85	No	ns	0.9030
<i>500 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-32.45	-67.44 to 2.538	No	ns	0.0860
<i>500 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	-6.038	-41.02 to 28.95	No	ns	0.9962
<i>600 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	26.41	-6.717 to 59.54	No	ns	0.2007
Light					
<i>Untreated vs. 0.1% DMSO</i>	11.66	-21.47 to 44.78	No	ns	0.9127
<i>Untreated vs. 400 nM CPT</i>	12.21	-21.47 to 45.88	No	ns	0.9019
<i>Untreated vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	22.65	-12.34 to 57.63	No	ns	0.4269
<i>Untreated vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-2.177	-35.30 to 30.95	No	ns	>0.9999
<i>Untreated vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	29.68	-3.446 to 62.81	No	ns	0.1072
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 400 nM CPT</i>	0.5533	-33.12 to 34.23	No	ns	>0.9999
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	10.99	-24.00 to 45.98	No	ns	0.9447
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-13.83	-46.96 to 19.29	No	ns	0.8347
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	18.03	-15.10 to 51.15	No	ns	0.6206
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 500 nM CPT</i>	10.44	-25.07 to 45.94	No	ns	0.9581
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-14.39	-48.06 to 19.29	No	ns	0.8209
<i>400 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	17.47	-16.20 to 51.15	No	ns	0.6677
<i>500 nM CPT vs. 600 nM CPT</i>	-24.82	-59.81 to 10.16	No	ns	0.3215
<i>500 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	7.034	-27.95 to 42.02	No	ns	0.9923
<i>600 nM CPT vs. 700 nM CPT</i>	31.86	-1.269 to 64.99	No	ns	0.0670

Appendix 5.4.5. Survival of CPT treatment Optimisation 3. Zebrafish larvae were untreated, treated with 0.1% DMSO or 0.1% DMSO and CPT in E3 at 8, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hpf in 96 well plates. Survival was monitored daily until 4 dpf (96 hpf). **a.** Kaplan-Meier plots of survival until 4dpf. **i.** 8 hpf treated **ii.** 24 hpf treated **iii.** 48 hpf treated **iv.** 72 hpf treated. Dashed line indicated time of treatment. **b.** table indicated *n* numbers at the time of treatment and at the time of swimming analysis.



b

Time/ Dose of CPT Treatment	Number of fish treated	Number of fish survived for swimming analysis
8 hpf		
<i>Untreated</i>	16	16
<i>0.1% DMSO</i>	16	16
<i>1 nM</i>	16	15
<i>1.5 nM</i>	16	16
<i>2 nM</i>	16	16
<i>2.5 nM</i>	16	13
24 hpf		
<i>Untreated</i>	16	15
<i>0.1% DMSO</i>	16	16
<i>2 nM</i>	16	16
<i>2.5 nM</i>	16	16
<i>3 nM</i>	16	16
<i>3.5 nM</i>	16	16
48 hpf		
<i>Untreated</i>	15	15
<i>0.1% DMSO</i>	16	15
<i>12 nM</i>	16	16

<i>25 nM</i>	16	16
<i>50 nM</i>	16	14
<i>100 nM</i>	16	0
72 hpf		
<i>Untreated</i>	15	15
<i>0.1% DMSO</i>	14	14
<i>25 nM</i>	15	14
<i>50 nM</i>	15	15
<i>100 nM</i>	16	16
<i>200 nM</i>	16	13
96 hpf		
<i>Untreated</i>	16	16
<i>0.1% DMSO</i>	16	16
<i>400 nM</i>	15	15
<i>500 nM</i>	13	13
<i>600 nM</i>	16	16
<i>700 nM</i>	16	16

Appendix 5.5 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.4: Optimisation 4 of CPT treatment on wild type (LWT) zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA							
Alpha		0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?			
Light Driving x CPT Conc	15.17	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Light Driving	22.08	<0.0001	****	Yes			
CPT Conc	30.91	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Subject	22.54	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Tukey's comparisons test	multiple	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted Value	P
Dark							
0.1% DMSO vs. 0.1 nM CPT			-14.85 to 410.1	No	ns	0.0844	
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT		197.6	-99.79 to 318.2	No	ns	0.6611	
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT		109.2	327.8 to 745.8	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT		536.8	503.1 to 921.2	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT		712.1	707.3 to 1132	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 1 nM CPT		919.7	-300.9 to 124.1	No	ns	0.8370	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		-88.40	126.7 to 551.6	Yes	***	0.0001	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		339.1	302.1 to 727.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		514.5	506.3 to 938.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		722.1	218.5 to 636.6	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		427.5	393.9 to 811.9	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		602.9	598.1 to 1023	Yes	****	<0.0001	
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		810.5	-33.64 to 384.4	No	ns	0.1558	
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		175.4	170.5 to 595.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		383.0	-4.860 to 420.1	No	ns	0.0597	
Light							
0.1% DMSO vs. 0.1 nM CPT			-206.2 to 218.7	No	ns	>0.9999	
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT		6.222	-126.6 to 291.5	No	ns	0.8654	
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT		82.45	-109.0 to 309.0	No	ns	0.7400	
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT		99.98	-100.4 to 317.7	No	ns	0.6662	
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT		108.6	-11.36 to 413.6	No	ns	0.0750	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 1 nM CPT		201.1	-136.2 to 288.7	No	ns	0.9060	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		76.23	-118.7 to 306.2	No	ns	0.8001	

0.1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	102.4	-110.0 to 314.9	No	ns	0.7336
0.1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	194.9	-20.98 to 410.8	No	ns	0.1023
1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT	17.53	-191.5 to 226.5	No	ns	0.9999
1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	26.19	-182.8 to 235.2	No	ns	0.9992
1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	118.7	-93.81 to 331.1	No	ns	0.5936
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT	8.660	-200.4 to 217.7	No	ns	>0.9999
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	101.1	-111.3 to 313.6	No	ns	0.7440
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	92.47	-120.0 to 304.9	No	ns	0.8093

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA							
Alpha		0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?			
Light Driving x CPT Conc	9.930	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Light Driving	12.00	<0.0001	****	Yes			
CPT Conc	35.13	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Subject	32.37	<0.0001	****	Yes			
Tukey's comparisons test	multiple	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted Value	P
Dark							
0.1% DMSO vs. 0.1 nM CPT			-13.07 to 59.90	No	ns	0.4370	
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT		23.42	-27.35 to 44.43	No	ns	0.9833	
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT		8.542	27.17 to 98.95	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT		63.06	50.55 to 122.3	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT		86.44	97.13 to 170.1	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 1 nM CPT			-51.36 to 21.61	No	ns	0.8483	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		-14.88	3.162 to 76.13	Yes	*	0.0246	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		39.65	26.54 to 99.51	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		63.02	73.13 to 147.3	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		110.2	18.63 to 90.41	Yes	***	0.0003	
1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		54.52	42.01 to 113.8	Yes	****	<0.0001	
1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		77.90	88.59 to 161.6	Yes	****	<0.0001	
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		125.1	-12.51 to 59.27	No	ns	0.4199	
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		23.38	34.07 to 107.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		70.55	10.69 to 83.66	Yes	**	0.0035	
Light							

0.1% DMSO vs. 0.1 nM CPT		-35.36 to			
	1.127	37.61	No	ns	>0.9999
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM CPT		-24.77 to			
	11.13	47.02	No	ns	0.9477
0.1% DMSO vs. 12.5 nM CPT		-20.44 to			
	15.45	51.34	No	ns	0.8163
0.1% DMSO vs. 25 nM CPT		-17.37 to			
	18.52	54.41	No	ns	0.6731
0.1% DMSO vs. 50 nM CPT	48.76	12.28 to 85.24	Yes	**	0.0022
0.1 nM CPT vs. 1 nM CPT		-26.49 to			
	9.998	46.48	No	ns	0.9690
0.1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		-22.16 to			
	14.33	50.81	No	ns	0.8677
0.1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		-19.09 to			
	17.39	53.88	No	ns	0.7427
0.1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	47.63	10.57 to 84.70	Yes	**	0.0038
1 nM CPT vs. 12.5 nM CPT		-31.56 to			
	4.327	40.22	No	ns	0.9993
1 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		-28.49 to			
	7.396	43.29	No	ns	0.9913
1 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT	37.64	1.152 to 74.12	Yes	*	0.0389
12.5 nM CPT vs. 25 nM CPT		-32.82 to			
	3.069	38.96	No	ns	0.9999
12.5 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		-3.175 to			
	33.31	69.79	No	ns	0.0954
25 nM CPT vs. 50 nM CPT		-6.244 to			
	30.24	66.72	No	ns	0.1660

Appendix 5.6: Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.5: Optimisation 5 of CPT treatment on wild type (LWT) zebrafish embryos at 48 hpf in a 96 well plate for swimming analysis at 5dpf.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA						
Alpha		0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x CPT Conc						
	2.281	0.0385	*	Yes		
Light Driving						
	49.40	<0.0001	****	Yes		
CPT Conc						
	2.587	0.1654	ns	No		
Subject						
	31.08	0.0066	**	Yes		
Šídák's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark						
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM	141.8	-42.05 to 325.6	No	ns	0.1795	
0.1% DMSO vs. 10 nM	215.6	31.80 to 399.4	Yes	*	0.0160	
1 nM vs. 10 nM	73.85	-110.0 to 257.7	No	ns	0.7005	
Light						
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM	67.06	-116.8 to 250.9	No	ns	0.7583	
0.1% DMSO vs. 10 nM	-6.825	-190.6 to 177.0	No	ns	0.9996	
1 nM vs. 10 nM	-73.89	-257.7 to 109.9	No	ns	0.7002	

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA						
Alpha		0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?		
Light Driving x CPT Conc						
	3.588	0.0025	**	Yes		
Light Driving						
	40.17	<0.0001	****	Yes		
CPT Conc						
	6.748	0.0246	*	Yes		
Subject						
	37.69	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Mean Diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark						
0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM	20.31	-7.809 to 48.42	No	ns	0.2029	
0.1% DMSO vs. 10 nM	23.04	-5.073 to 51.16	No	ns	0.1300	
1 nM vs. 10 nM	2.735	-25.38 to 30.85	No	ns	0.9708	
Light						

<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 1 nM</i>	<i>37.40</i>	<i>9.284 to 65.52</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>**</i>	<i>0.0059</i>
<i>0.1% DMSO vs. 10 nM</i>	<i>-2.221</i>	<i>-30.34 to 25.90</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>0.9807</i>
<i>1 nM vs. 10 nM</i>	<i>-39.62</i>	<i>-67.74 to -11.50</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>**</i>	<i>0.0033</i>

Appendix 5.7: Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.6: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibit no behavioural abnormalities in response to DNA damaging agent CPT compared to their control siblings.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?		
CPT Conc x Genotype	1.090	0.5264	ns	No		
CPT Conc	30.85	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.4404	0.3549	ns	No		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Genotype v Genotype						
0.1% DMSO – Dark						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	-100.5	-281.4 to 80.50	No	ns	0.3917	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	36.78	-173.5 to 247.0	No	ns	0.9106	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	137.2	-35.92 to 310.4	No	ns	0.1501	
10 nM CPT -Dark						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	45.94	-110.5 to 202.3	No	ns	0.7682	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	106.4	-109.7 to 322.5	No	ns	0.4777	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	60.50	-144.0 to 265.0	No	ns	0.7652	
0.1% DMSO - Light						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	9.064	-171.9 to 190.0	No	ns	0.9923	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	42.03	-168.2 to 252.3	No	ns	0.8849	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	32.97	-140.2 to 206.1	No	ns	0.8950	
10 nM CPT - Light						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	98.24	-58.16 to 254.6	No	ns	0.3020	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	64.03	-152.1 to 280.1	No	ns	0.7646	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-34.20	-238.7 to 170.3	No	ns	0.9179	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
0.1% DMSO v 10 nM CPT (Within Genotypes)						
$ATM^{+/+}$						
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	40.97	-173.3 to 255.2	No	ns	0.9603	
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	429.6	191.9 to 667.3	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	347.0	132.7 to 561.3	Yes	***	0.0002	
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	388.7	174.4 to 602.9	Yes	****	<0.0001	
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	306.0	118.1 to 494.0	Yes	***	0.0002	
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-82.61	-296.9 to 131.7	No	ns	0.7514	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$						
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	187.4	35.97 to 338.8	Yes	**	0.0083	
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	539.2	389.8 to 688.5	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	545.7	394.3 to 697.1	Yes	****	<0.0001	
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	351.8	200.4 to 503.2	Yes	****	<0.0001	
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	358.3	204.9 to 511.8	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	6.563	-144.8 to 158.0	No	ns	0.9995	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$						
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	110.6	-141.3 to 362.5	No	ns	0.6680	
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	434.9	211.6 to 658.2	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	374.3	122.4 to 626.2	Yes	***	0.0009	
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	324.2	72.34 to 576.1	Yes	**	0.0055	
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	263.6	-13.95 to 541.2	No	ns	0.0695	

0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-60.61	-312.5 to 191.3	No	ns	0.9250
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Total 0.1% DMSO Dark v Total 10 nM CPT Light	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	113.0	-8.243 to 234.2	No	ns	0.0777
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	467.9	348.3 to 587.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	422.3	301.1 to 543.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	354.9	233.7 to 476.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	309.3	186.5 to 432.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-45.55	-166.8 to 75.69	No	ns	0.7659

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA					
Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?	
CPT Conc x Genotype	1.028	0.7336	ns	No	
CPT Conc	14.82	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Genotype	1.110	0.1471	ns	No	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0.1% DMSO – Dark					
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+sh477}	-2.004	-35.72 to 31.71	No	ns	0.9892
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	12.34	-26.83 to 51.50	No	ns	0.7385
ATM ^{+sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	14.34	-17.92 to 46.60	No	ns	0.5475
10 nM CPT -Dark					
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+sh477}	11.55	-17.58 to 40.69	No	ns	0.6190
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	23.21	-17.04 to 63.46	No	ns	0.3641
ATM ^{+sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	11.66	-26.43 to 49.75	No	ns	0.7510
0.1% DMSO - Light					
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+sh477}	5.425	-28.29 to 39.14	No	ns	0.9238
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	7.263	-31.90 to 46.43	No	ns	0.9001
ATM ^{+sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	1.837	-30.42 to 34.10	No	ns	0.9901
10 nM CPT - Light					
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+sh477}	27.79	-1.340 to 56.93	No	ns	0.0651
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	18.35	-21.90 to 58.61	No	ns	0.5307
ATM ^{+sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-9.439	-47.53 to 28.65	No	ns	0.8288
Tukey's multiple comparisons test 0.1% DMSO v 10 nM CPT (Within Genotypes)	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
ATM^{+/+}					
0.1% DMSO (D ²) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	-0.2267	-40.14 to 39.69	No	ns	>0.9999
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L ³)	52.68	8.404 to 96.97	Yes	*	0.0123
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	27.68	-12.23 to 67.60	No	ns	0.2790
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	52.91	13.00 to 92.83	Yes	**	0.0039

10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	27.91	-7.099 to 62.92	No	ns	0.1687
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-25.00	-64.92 to 14.91	No	ns	0.3694
ATM^{+/sh477}					
0.1% DMSO (D ⁴) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	13.33	-14.88 to 41.53	No	ns	0.6136
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L ⁵)	60.11	32.29 to 87.93	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	57.48	29.27 to 85.68	Yes	****	<0.0001
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	46.78	18.58 to 74.99	Yes	***	0.0001
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	44.15	15.57 to 72.73	Yes	***	0.0005
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-2.635	-30.84 to 25.57	No	ns	0.9950
ATM^{SH477/SH477}					
0.1% DMSO (D ⁶) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	10.65	-36.28 to 57.57	No	ns	0.9361
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L ⁷)	47.61	6.017 to 89.21	Yes	*	0.0176
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	33.70	-13.22 to 80.63	No	ns	0.2494
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	36.96	-9.962 to 83.89	No	ns	0.1773
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	23.05	-28.66 to 74.76	No	ns	0.6573
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-13.91	-60.84 to 33.01	No	ns	0.8695
Tukey's multiple comparisons test					
Total 0.1% DMSO Dark v Total 10 nM CPT Light	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (D)	7.917	-14.67 to 30.50	No	ns	0.8015
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	53.47	31.20 to 75.74	Yes	****	<0.0001
0.1% DMSO (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	39.62	17.04 to 62.21	Yes	****	<0.0001
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 0.1% DMSO (L)	45.55	22.97 to 68.14	Yes	****	<0.0001
10 nM CPT (D) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	31.70	8.812 to 54.59	Yes	**	0.0023
0.1% DMSO (L) vs. 10 nM CPT (L)	-13.85	-36.43 to 8.735	No	ns	0.3887

Appendix 5.8: Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.7: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish larvae exhibit no swimming defects in response to exogenous DNA damage induced by IR compared to their control siblings.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?		
IR DOSE X Genotype	0.2049	0.9378	ns	No		
IR Dose	46.75	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.7609	0.0371	*	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Genotype v Genotype						
0 Gy - Dark						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	35.69	-45.51 to 116.9	No	ns	0.5560	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-26.45	-113.0 to 60.15	No	ns	0.7529	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-62.14	-142.7 to 18.43	No	ns	0.1662	
8 Gy - Dark						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	-18.44	-101.4 to 64.53	No	ns	0.8603	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-66.54	-161.3 to 28.21	No	ns	0.2253	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-48.10	-137.8 to 41.58	No	ns	0.4179	
0 Gy - Light						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	20.10	-61.45 to 101.7	No	ns	0.8311	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-19.00	-105.6 to 67.60	No	ns	0.8636	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-39.11	-120.0 to 41.82	No	ns	0.4922	
8 Gy - Light						
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{+/sh477}$	-2.204	-85.18 to 80.77	No	ns	0.9979	
$ATM^{+/+}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-34.89	-129.6 to 59.86	No	ns	0.6620	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$ vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$	-32.69	-122.4 to 56.99	No	ns	0.6676	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
0 Gy vs 8 Gy (within Genotype)						
$ATM^{+/+}$						
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (D)	230.1	133.9 to 326.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	327.4	231.8 to 423.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	404.7	308.4 to 501.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
8Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	97.22	0.9229 to 193.5	Yes	*	0.0468	
8Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	174.5	77.57 to 271.5	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	77.32	-18.97 to 173.6	No	ns	0.1644	
$ATM^{+/sh477}$						
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (D)	176.0	92.74 to 259.3	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	311.8	229.4 to 394.2	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	366.8	283.5 to 450.1	Yes	****	<0.0001	
8Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	135.8	52.06 to 219.5	Yes	***	0.0002	
8Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	190.8	106.2 to 275.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	55.01	-28.69 to 138.7	No	ns	0.3275	

ATM^{sh477/sh477}

0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (D)	190.1	87.38 to 292.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	334.8	240.5 to 429.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	396.2	293.6 to 498.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
8Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	144.8	42.08 to 247.4	Yes	**	0.0018
8Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	206.2	95.78 to 316.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	61.43	-41.25 to 164.1	No	ns	0.4128

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P Value	P value summary	Significant?		
IR Dose X Genotype	0.4219	0.7445	ns	No		
IR Dose	41.97	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.2485	0.3581	ns	No		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Genotype v Genotype						
0 Gy - Dark						
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-3.271	-20.02 to 13.47	No	ns	0.8903	
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-4.296	-22.21 to 13.62	No	ns	0.8393	
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-1.025	-17.50 to 15.45	No	ns	0.9883	
8 Gy - Dark						
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	10.19	-6.233 to 26.62	No	ns	0.3117	
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-1.842	-20.77 to 17.08	No	ns	0.9715	
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-12.03	-30.45 to 6.386	No	ns	0.2749	
0 Gy - Light						
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-4.918	-21.66 to 11.83	No	ns	0.7691	
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-4.742	-22.66 to 13.17	No	ns	0.8079	
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	0.1756	-16.30 to 16.65	No	ns	0.9997	
8 Gy - Light						
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	4.469	-11.96 to 20.89	No	ns	0.7983	
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-3.859	-22.78 to 15.06	No	ns	0.8810	
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-8.328	-26.75 to 10.09	No	ns	0.5375	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
0 Gy vs 8 Gy (within Genotype)						
ATM^{+/+}						
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (D)	230.1	133.9 to 326.4	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	327.4	231.8 to 423.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	404.7	308.4 to 501.0	Yes	****	<0.0001	
8Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	97.22	0.9229 to 193.5	Yes	*	0.0468	
8Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	174.5	77.57 to 271.5	Yes	****	<0.0001	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	77.32	-18.97 to 173.6	No	ns	0.1644	
ATM^{+/sh477}						
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (D)	176.0	92.74 to 259.3	Yes	****	<0.0001	

0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	311.8	229.4 to 394.2	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	366.8	283.5 to 450.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
8Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	135.8	52.06 to 219.5	Yes	***	0.0002
8Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	190.8	106.2 to 275.4	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	55.01	-28.69 to 138.7	No	ns	0.3275
ATM^{sh477/sh477}					
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (D)	190.1	87.38 to 292.7	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	334.8	240.5 to 429.1	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	396.2	293.6 to 498.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
8Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	144.8	42.08 to 247.4	Yes	**	0.0018
8Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	206.2	95.78 to 316.6	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 8Gy (L)	61.43	-41.25 to 164.1	No	ns	0.4128

Appendix 5.9.1 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to figure 5.9: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish do not exhibit sensitivity to an ATM inhibitor.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
Genotype and IR Dose x ATMi	1.358	0.2199	ns	No		
Genotype/IR dose	1.584	0.0033	**	Yes		
ATMi	51.38	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted mean diff. (LS)	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark						
1% DMSO						
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY	-15.25	-154.3 to 123.8	No	ns	0.9921	
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY	23.49	-110.3 to 157.3	No	ns	0.9690	
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	-57.24	-202.7 to 88.23	No	ns	0.7405	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY	38.74	-78.99 to 156.5	No	ns	0.8309	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	-42.00	-172.8 to 88.83	No	ns	0.8410	
$ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	-80.74	-206.0 to 44.49	No	ns	0.3445	
10 nM ATMi						
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY		-32.40 to 233.5	No	ns	0.2085	
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY	100.5	35.60 to 269.9	Yes	**	0.0047	
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	152.8	-165.3 to 73.62	No	ns	0.7549	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY	-45.86	-82.48 to 186.9	No	ns	0.7492	
$HOM 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	52.23	-283.1 to -9.682	Yes	*	0.0304	
$ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	-146.4	-320.1 to -77.19	Yes	***	0.0002	
Light						
1% DMSO						
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY	-26.70	-165.8 to 112.4	No	ns	0.9601	
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY	6.342	-127.5 to 140.2	No	ns	0.9993	
$ATM^{+/+} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	-21.97	-167.5 to 123.5	No	ns	0.9799	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY	33.04	-84.69 to 150.8	No	ns	0.8874	
$ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	4.723	-126.1 to 135.5	No	ns	0.9997	
$ATM^{+/+} 12$ GY vs. $ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12$ GY	-28.31	-153.5 to 96.91	No	ns	0.9370	

10 nM ATMi

ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY	21.19	-111.8 to 154.1	No	ns	0.9765
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	41.96	-75.21 to 159.1	No	ns	0.7920
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	2.852	-116.6 to 122.3	No	ns	>0.9999
ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	20.77	-113.9 to 155.5	No	ns	0.9786
HOM 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-18.33	-155.1 to 118.4	No	ns	0.9857
ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-39.10	-160.5 to 82.34	No	ns	0.8398

Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted mean diff.	(LS)	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
ATM^{+/+} 0 GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	-26.92		-162.3 to 108.4	No	ns	0.9559
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	3.153		-132.2 to 138.5	No	ns	>0.9999
ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	88.87		-47.85 to 225.6	No	ns	0.3371
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	51.03		-13.03 to 217.8	No	ns	0.1024
ATM^{+/+} 12 GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	102.4		-13.03 to 217.8	No	ns	0.1024
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	38.77		-76.62 to 154.2	No	ns	0.8219
ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	-15.54		-146.4 to 115.3	No	ns	0.9900
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	27.98		-102.8 to 158.8	No	ns	0.9460

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P summary	value	Significant?	
Genotype and IR Dose x ATMi	0.8023	0.7565	ns		No	
Genotype/IR dose	2.149	0.0016	**		Yes	
ATMi	42.81	<0.0001	****		Yes	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted mean diff.	(LS)	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Dark						
1% DMSO						
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY	-3.448		-25.75 to 18.86	No	ns	0.9785
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	7.263		-14.20 to 28.73	No	ns	0.8188
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-3.473		-26.81 to 19.86	No	ns	0.9807

ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	10.71	-8.172 to 29.59	No	ns	0.4606	
ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-0.02528	-21.01 to 20.96	No	ns	>0.9999	
ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-10.74	-30.82 to 9.349	No	ns	0.5131	
10 nM ATMi						
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY	9.786	-11.54 to 31.11	No	ns	0.6372	
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	22.32	3.527 to 41.11	Yes	*	0.0124	
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-2.924	-22.09 to 16.24	No	ns	0.9793	
ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	12.53	-9.072 to 34.14	No	ns	0.4404	
HOM 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-12.71	-34.64 to 9.220	No	ns	0.4412	
ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-25.24	-44.72 to 5.765	Yes	**	0.0050	
Light						
1% DMSO						
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY	-6.205	-28.51 to 16.10	No	ns	0.8900	
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	3.840	-17.62 to 25.30	No	ns	0.9673	
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-2.510	-25.84 to 20.82	No	ns	0.9925	
ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	10.04	-8.838 to 28.93	No	ns	0.5173	
ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	3.695	-17.29 to 24.68	No	ns	0.9687	
ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-6.349	-26.43 to 13.74	No	ns	0.8470	
10 nM ATMi						
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY	3.982	-17.34 to 25.30	No	ns	0.9631	
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	12.84	-5.953 to 31.63	No	ns	0.2929	
ATM ^{+/+} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	1.616	-17.55 to 20.78	No	ns	0.9964	
ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY vs. ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY	8.857	-12.75 to 30.46	No	ns	0.7154	
HOM 0 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-2.367	-24.30 to 19.56	No	ns	0.9925	
ATM ^{+/+} 12 GY vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477} 12GY	-11.22	-30.70 to 8.254	No	ns	0.4464	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted mean diff.	(LS)	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
ATM^{+/+} 0 GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	3.851	-17.86 to 25.56	No	ns	0.9681	
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	2.633	-19.08 to 24.34	No	ns	0.9894	
ATM^{sh477/sh477} 0 GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	17.09	-4.844 to 39.01	No	ns	0.1859	
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	12.82	-9.108 to 34.75	No	ns	0.4333	
ATM^{+/+} 12 GY						
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	18.91	0.4011 to 37.42	Yes	*	0.0431	

1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	11.63	-6.874 to 30.14	No	ns	0.3674
ATM^{sh477/sh477} 12GY					
1% DMSO vs. 10 nM ATMi (Dark)	4.401	-16.58 to 25.38	No	ns	0.9489
1% DMSO light vs. 10 nM ATMi (Light)	6.759	-14.22 to 27.74	No	ns	0.8396

Appendix 5.9.2 Numbers of fish per treatment group in figure 5.9: $ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ zebrafish do not exhibit sensitivity to an ATM inhibitor.

	$ATM^{+/+}$ 0 Gy	$ATM^{+/+}$ 12 Gy	$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ 0 Gy	$ATM^{sh477/sh477}$ 12 Gy
1 %DMSO	17	32	26	21
10 nM ATMi	30	28	18	26

Appendix 5.10: Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.10: *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish larvae exhibit no swimming defects at 12 dpf.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA							
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Alpha	0.05						
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary		Significant?		
Light Driving x Genotype	0.4490	0.2623	ns		No		
Light Driving	1.074	0.0125	*		Yes		
Genotype	2.137	0.3219	ns		No		
Subject	81.87	<0.0001	****		Yes		
<hr/>							
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark							
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-40.61	-480.0 to 398.8		No	ns	0.9740
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-182.7	-625.4 to 260.0		No	ns	0.5932
	ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-142.1	-570.1 to 285.8		No	ns	0.7127
Light							
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-276.1	-715.5 to 163.3		No	ns	0.3004
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-337.8	-780.5 to 104.9		No	ns	0.1713
	ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-61.73	-489.6 to 366.2		No	ns	0.9380
Sídák's multiple comparisons test	Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark - Light							
	ATM ^{+/+}	279.6	22.95 to 536.2		Yes	*	0.0282
	ATM ^{+/sh477}	44.09	-196.0 to 284.2		No	ns	0.9593
	ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	124.5	-119.4 to 368.4		No	ns	0.5206

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way RM ANOVA							
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<hr/>							
Alpha	0.05						
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary		Significant?		
Light Driving x Genotype	0.3017	0.0504	ns		No		
Light Driving	0.5061	0.0018	**		Yes		
Genotype	1.879	0.4149	ns		No		
Subject	93.06	<0.0001	****		Yes		
<hr/>							
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Dark							
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-8.235	-36.21 to 19.74		No	ns	0.7663
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-9.672	-37.86 to 18.52		No	ns	0.6967
	ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-1.437	-28.68 to 25.81		No	ns	0.9915
Light							
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-20.54	-48.52 to 7.439		No	ns	0.1950
	ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	-15.20	-43.38 to 12.99		No	ns	0.4116
	ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	5.343	-21.90 to 32.59		No	ns	0.8884

Šidák's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
Dark - Light					
ATM ^{+/-}	279.6	22.95 to 536.2	Yes	*	0.0282
ATM ^{+/-} /sh477	44.09	-196.0 to 284.2	No	ns	0.9593
ATM ^{sh477/sh477}	124.5	-119.4 to 368.4	No	ns	0.5206

Appendix 5.11.1: Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.11: *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish larvae exhibit no swimming defects at 12 dpf after treatment at 48 hpf with ionising radiation.

Figure b: Average distance travelled in dark and light phases

Two way ANOVA						
Alpha	0.05					
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?		
IR Dose x Genotype	1.509	0.7317	ns	No		
IR Dose	19.14	<0.0001	****	Yes		
Genotype	0.07861	0.8351	ns	No		
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
Genotype v Genotype						
0 Gy – Dark						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	-185.0	-572.1 to 202.2	No	ns	0.4995	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	130.8	-314.0 to 575.6	No	ns	0.7683	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	315.8	-148.8 to 780.4	No	ns	0.2471	
2 Gy - Dark						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	-76.99	-466.0 to 312.0	No	ns	0.8873	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-111.0	-582.5 to 360.5	No	ns	0.8445	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-34.01	-495.6 to 427.6	No	ns	0.9836	
8 Gy- Dark						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	113.3	-292.7 to 519.3	No	ns	0.7887	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-1.263	-432.0 to 429.5	No	ns	>0.9999	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-114.6	-557.9 to 328.8	No	ns	0.8158	
0 Gy – Light						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	156.9	-230.3 to 544.0	No	ns	0.6066	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-10.89	-455.7 to 433.9	No	ns	0.9982	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-167.8	-632.4 to 296.8	No	ns	0.6722	
2 Gy - Light						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	-81.61	-470.6 to 307.4	No	ns	0.8743	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-238.0	-709.5 to 233.5	No	ns	0.4612	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-156.4	-617.9 to 305.2	No	ns	0.7050	
8 Gy- Light						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>	172.5	-233.5 to 578.6	No	ns	0.5774	
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	44.44	-386.3 to 475.2	No	ns	0.9680	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i> vs. <i>ATM^{SH477/SH477}</i>	-128.1	-571.4 to 315.3	No	ns	0.7754	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value	
IR Dose within Genotype						
<i>ATM^{+/+}</i>						
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-145.7	-611.2 to 319.9	No	ns	0.9472	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	118.9	-341.3 to 579.1	No	ns	0.9768	
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	448.1	5.950 to 890.2	Yes	*	0.0449	
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	272.1	-193.4 to 737.7	No	ns	0.5494	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	566.1	105.9 to 1026	Yes	**	0.0063	
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	264.6	-218.1 to 747.3	No	ns	0.6186	
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	593.8	128.2 to 1059	Yes	**	0.0040	
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	417.8	-70.03 to 905.6	No	ns	0.1409	
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	711.8	229.1 to 1195	Yes	***	0.0004	
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	329.2	-131.0 to 789.4	No	ns	0.3165	
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	153.2	-329.5 to 636.0	No	ns	0.9440	
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	447.2	-30.37 to 924.8	No	ns	0.0812	
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-176.0	-641.5 to 289.6	No	ns	0.8880	
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	118.0	-342.2 to 578.2	No	ns	0.9775	
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	294.0	-188.8 to 776.7	No	ns	0.5030	
<i>ATM^{+/sh477}</i>						
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-37.68	-516.9 to 441.5	No	ns	>0.9999	
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	417.2	-87.52 to 921.9	No	ns	0.1703	
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	790.0	291.2 to 1289	Yes	***	0.0001	

0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	375.5	-103.7 to 854.7	No	ns	0.2199
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	923.6	418.9 to 1428	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	454.9	-30.50 to 940.2	No	ns	0.0807
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	827.7	348.4 to 1307	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	413.2	-45.64 to 872.0	No	ns	0.1048
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	961.3	475.9 to 1447	Yes	****	<0.0001
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	372.8	-131.9 to 877.5	No	ns	0.2812
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-41.68	-527.1 to 443.7	No	ns	0.9999
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	506.4	-4.127 to 1017	No	ns	0.0533
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-414.5	-893.7 to 64.77	No	ns	0.1334
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	133.6	-371.1 to 638.3	No	ns	0.9741
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	548.1	62.72 to 1033	Yes	*	0.0166
ATM^{sh477/sh477}					
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-387.5	-1025 to 249.7	No	ns	0.5047
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	-13.15	-610.2 to 583.9	No	ns	>0.9999
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	306.4	-318.9 to 931.7	No	ns	0.7246
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-96.64	-733.8 to 540.6	No	ns	0.9980
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	479.7	-117.3 to 1077	No	ns	0.1958
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	374.3	-235.2 to 983.8	No	ns	0.4933
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	693.9	56.70 to 1331	Yes	*	0.0238
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	290.8	-358.0 to 939.7	No	ns	0.7936
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	867.2	257.7 to 1477	Yes	***	0.0008
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	319.6	-277.5 to 916.6	No	ns	0.6428
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-83.48	-693.0 to 526.0	No	ns	0.9988
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	492.9	-74.53 to 1060	No	ns	0.1301
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-403.0	-1040 to 234.1	No	ns	0.4591
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	173.3	-423.7 to 770.4	No	ns	0.9615
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	576.4	-33.14 to 1186	No	ns	0.0758
Tukey's multiple comparisons test					
IR Dose v IR Dose	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-190.3	-498.0 to 117.5	No	ns	0.4855
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	174.3	-128.1 to 476.7	No	ns	0.5648
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	514.8	210.2 to 819.5	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	183.7	-124.1 to 491.4	No	ns	0.5261
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	656.5	354.1 to 958.9	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	364.6	59.07 to 670.1	Yes	**	0.0091
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	705.1	397.4 to 1013	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	373.9	63.11 to 684.8	Yes	**	0.0083
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	846.8	541.2 to 1152	Yes	****	<0.0001
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	340.5	38.12 to 642.9	Yes	*	0.0171
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	9.353	-296.2 to 314.9	No	ns	>0.9999
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	482.2	182.0 to 782.3	Yes	****	<0.0001
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-331.2	-638.9 to -23.41	Yes	*	0.0266
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	141.7	-160.7 to 444.1	No	ns	0.7612
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	472.8	167.3 to 778.3	Yes	***	0.0002

Figure d: Average duration spent in active swimming in dark and light phases

Two way ANOVA					
Alpha	0.05				
Source of Variation	% of total variation	P value	P value summary	Significant?	
IR Dose x Genotype	1.450	0.8022	ns	No	
IR Dose	13.83	<0.0001	****	Yes	
Genotype	1.087	0.1017	ns	No	
Tukey's multiple comparisons test					
Genotype v Genotype	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
0 Gy – Dark					
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-11.17	-40.68 to 18.34	No	ns	0.6463
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-5.417	-35.94 to 25.11	No	ns	0.9083
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	5.754	-27.39 to 38.90	No	ns	0.9121

2 Gy - Dark

ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	-1.798	-30.22 to 26.62	No	ns	0.9878
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-8.764	-43.21 to 25.68	No	ns	0.8209
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-6.965	-40.69 to 26.76	No	ns	0.8779

8 Gy- Dark

ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	17.36	-12.69 to 47.42	No	ns	0.3634
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	1.294	-30.75 to 33.34	No	ns	0.9950
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-16.07	-49.37 to 17.23	No	ns	0.4927

0 Gy – Light

ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	10.83	-18.67 to 40.34	No	ns	0.6632
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-14.10	-45.21 to 17.01	No	ns	0.5353
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-24.94	-58.62 to 8.749	No	ns	0.1910

2 Gy - Light

ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	3.377	-25.04 to 31.80	No	ns	0.9578
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-18.33	-52.78 to 16.11	No	ns	0.4230
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-21.71	-55.43 to 12.01	No	ns	0.2849

8 Gy- Light

ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{+/sh477}	16.72	-13.34 to 46.78	No	ns	0.3908
ATM ^{+/+} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	6.145	-25.90 to 38.19	No	ns	0.8938
ATM ^{+/sh477} vs. ATM ^{SH477/SH477}	-10.58	-43.88 to 22.72	No	ns	0.7353

Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
IR Dose within Genotype					
ATM^{+/+}					
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-9.665	-43.68 to 24.35	No	ns	0.9648
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	-0.5280	-34.15 to 33.09	No	ns	>0.9999
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	28.29	-4.015 to 60.59	No	ns	0.1241
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	15.21	-18.81 to 49.22	No	ns	0.7953
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	28.62	-5.001 to 62.24	No	ns	0.1457
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	9.137	-26.13 to 44.40	No	ns	0.9765
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	37.95	3.939 to 71.96	Yes	*	0.0188
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	24.87	-10.77 to 60.51	No	ns	0.3446
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	38.29	3.018 to 73.55	Yes	*	0.0245
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	28.81	-4.807 to 62.44	No	ns	0.1404
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	15.73	-19.53 to 51.00	No	ns	0.7967
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	29.15	-5.742 to 64.04	No	ns	0.1611
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-13.08	-47.09 to 20.93	No	ns	0.8804
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	0.3337	-33.29 to 33.96	No	ns	>0.9999
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	13.41	-21.85 to 48.68	No	ns	0.8853
ATM^{+/sh477}					
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-0.2913	-36.77 to 36.19	No	ns	>0.9999
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	28.01	-10.71 to 66.73	No	ns	0.3041
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	50.29	11.08 to 89.51	Yes	**	0.0037
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	29.75	-6.724 to 66.23	No	ns	0.1820
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	56.51	17.79 to 95.23	Yes	***	0.0005
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	28.30	-7.651 to 64.25	No	ns	0.2154
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	50.58	14.11 to 87.06	Yes	**	0.0012
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	30.05	-3.476 to 63.57	No	ns	0.1079
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	56.81	20.86 to 92.75	Yes	***	0.0001
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	22.29	-16.43 to 61.01	No	ns	0.5664
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	1.749	-34.20 to 37.70	No	ns	>0.9999
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	28.51	-9.712 to 66.73	No	ns	0.2706
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-20.54	-57.02 to 15.94	No	ns	0.5903
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	6.221	-32.50 to 44.94	No	ns	0.9974
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	26.76	-9.188 to 62.71	No	ns	0.2727
ATM^{sh477/sh477}					
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-13.01	-57.54 to 31.52	No	ns	0.9604
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	6.183	-35.92 to 48.28	No	ns	0.9983
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	19.60	-22.50 to 61.70	No	ns	0.7658
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	2.289	-42.24 to 46.82	No	ns	>0.9999
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	40.18	-1.916 to 82.28	No	ns	0.0710
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	19.19	-25.94 to 64.32	No	ns	0.8276
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	32.61	-12.52 to 77.74	No	ns	0.3051
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	15.30	-32.11 to 62.71	No	ns	0.9400
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	53.19	8.064 to 98.32	Yes	*	0.0105
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	13.42	-29.31 to 56.15	No	ns	0.9464
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-3.894	-49.02 to 41.24	No	ns	0.9999
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	34.00	-8.732 to 76.73	No	ns	0.2050
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-17.31	-62.44 to 27.82	No	ns	0.8815

0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	20.58	-22.15 to 63.31	No	ns	0.7390
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	37.89	-7.236 to 83.02	No	ns	0.1569
Tukey's multiple comparisons test	Predicted (LS) mean diff.	95.00% CI of diff.	Below threshold?	Summary	Adjusted P Value
IR Dose v IR Dose					
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (D)	-7.656	-29.94 to 14.63	No	ns	0.9228
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	11.22	-10.90 to 33.34	No	ns	0.6939
0 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	32.73	10.73 to 54.72	Yes	***	0.0004
0 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	15.75	-6.537 to 38.04	No	ns	0.3302
0 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	41.77	19.66 to 63.89	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (D)	18.88	-3.665 to 41.42	No	ns	0.1591
2 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	40.38	17.96 to 62.80	Yes	****	<0.0001
2 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	23.41	0.6964 to 46.12	Yes	*	0.0390
2 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	49.43	26.89 to 71.97	Yes	****	<0.0001
8 Gy (D) vs. 0 Gy (L)	21.51	-0.7435 to 43.76	No	ns	0.0648
8 Gy (D) vs. 2 Gy (L)	4.530	-18.01 to 27.07	No	ns	0.9926
8 Gy (D) vs. 8 Gy (L)	30.55	8.181 to 52.92	Yes	**	0.0015
0 Gy (L) vs. 2 Gy (L)	-16.98	-39.40 to 5.444	No	ns	0.2547
0 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	9.045	-13.20 to 31.30	No	ns	0.8532
2 Gy (L) vs. 8 Gy (L)	26.02	3.482 to 48.56	Yes	*	0.0132

Appendix 5.11.2: Number of fish used corresponding to Figure 5.9.

ATM^{+/+}	
0 Gy	28
2 Gy	23
8 Gy	24
ATM^{+/sh477}	
0 Gy	22
2 Gy	26
8 Gy	21
ATM^{sh477/sh477}	
0 Gy	14
2 Gy	13
8 Gy	17

Appendix 5.12 Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.11: Adult male *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish show slight differences in their swimming endurance at 7 months of age compared to wild type controls.

Unpaired t test with Welch's correction	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Welch-corrected t, df	Size Effect	No of fish total required for 90% Power	No of fish in experiment
Figure a	0.1378	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.534, df=24.52	0.626	110	35
Figure b	0.1919	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.343, df=23.70	0.637	106	35
Figure c	0.1005	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.698, df=27.94	0.661	100	35
Figure d	0.0470	*	Yes	Two-tailed	t=2.073, df=29.49	0.662	98	35
Figure e	0.0098	**	Yes	Two-tailed	t=2.740, df=32.98	0.732	82	35

Appendix 5.13: Statistical Analysis Corresponding to Figure 5.13: Investigations into Total Motility of *ATM^{sh477/sh477}* zebrafish.

Unpaired t test with Welch's correction	P value	P value summary	Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	One- or two-tailed P value?	Welch-corrected t, df	Size Effect	No of fish total required for 90% Power	No of fish in experiment
<i>Figure b</i>	0.2685	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.154, df=13.54	0.647	104	17
<i>Figure d</i>	0.0685	ns	No	Two-tailed	t=1.985, df=13.13	0.746	78	17

Appendix 6

Appendix 6.1 Protein-Protein Blast Sequence Alignment of the rad51 zebrafish and Human Sequences

a. Alignment of the Full Protein Sequence Showing 84% Sequence Identity

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
548 bits(1411)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	269/322(84%)	286/322(88%)	1/322(0%)
Query 19	SFGPQPISRLEQCGINANDVKKLEEAGFHTVEAVAYAPKKE LINIKGISEAKADKILTES				78
Sbjct 20	+FGPQP+SRLEQ GI+++D+KKE+ GFHTVEAVAYAPKKE+NIKGISEAKADKILTE+				79
Query 79	RSVARLECN SVILVYCTLR LSGSSDSPASASRVVGTGGIETGSITEMFGFERTGKTQIC				138
Sbjct 80	+ + + + R S S GGIETGSITEMFGFERTGKTQ+C				138
Query 139	AKMVPMGFTTAT -EFHQRRAEIIQISTGSKELDKLLQGGIETGSITEMFGFERTGKTQLC				138
Query 139	HTLAVTCQLPIDRGGGEGKAMYIDTEGTFRPERLLAVAERYGLSGSDVLDNVAYARAFNT				198
Sbjct 139	HTLAVTCQLPID+GGGEGKAMYIDTEGTFRPERLLAVAERYGL GSDVLDNVAYARAFNT				198
Query 199	HTLAVTCQLPIDQGGGEGKAMYIDTEGTFRPERLLAVAERYGLVGSVDVLDNVAYARAFNT				198
Query 199	DHQTQLLYQASAMMVESRYALLIVDSATALYRTDYSGRGELSARQMHLARFLRMLRLAD				258
Sbjct 199	DHQTQLLYQASAMM ESRYALLIVDSATALYRTDYSGRGELSARQ HL RFLRMLRLAD				258
Query 259	DHQTQLLYQASAMMTEESRYALLIVDSATALYRTDYSGRGELSARQGH LGRFLRMLRLAD				258
Query 259	EFGVAVVITNQVVAQVDGAAMFAADPKKPIGGNI IAHASTTRLYLRKGRGETRICKIYDS				318
Sbjct 259	EFGVAVVITNQVVAQVDGAAMF+ADPKKPIGGNI+AHASTTRLYLRKGRGETRICKIYDS				318
Query 319	EFGVAVVITNQVVAQVDGAAMFSAADPKKPIGGNI LAHASTTRLYLRKGRGETRICKIYDS				318
Query 319	PCLPEAEAMFAINADGVGDAKD 340				
Sbjct 319	PCLPEAEAMFAINADGVGDAKD 340				

b. Alignment of the CORE Domain (amino acids 125-225 of the human protein)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
200 bits(508)	8e-74	Compositional matrix adjust.	95/99(96%)	97/99(97%)	0/99(0%)
Query 1	MFGEFRTGKTQLCHTLAVTCQLPIDQGGGEGKAMYIDTEGTFRPERLLAVAERYGLVGS				60
Sbjct 1	MFGEFRTGKTQ+CHTLAVTCQLPID+GGGEGKAMYIDTEGTFRPERLLAVAERYGL GSD				60
Query 61	MFGEFRTGKTQICHTLAVTCQLPIDRGGGEGKAMYIDTEGTFRPERLLAVAERYGLSGSD				60
Query 61	VLDNVAYARAFNTDHQTQLLYQASAMMTEESRYALLIVDS 99				
Sbjct 61	VLDNVAYARAFNTDHQTQLLYQASAMM ESRYALLIVDS 99				
Query 61	VLDNVAYARAFNTDHQTQLLYQASAMMVESRYALLIVDS 99				

Appendix 6.2 Protein-Protein Blast Sequence Alignment of the ATM zebrafish and human sequences

a. Alignment of the Full Protein Sequence Showing 54% Sequence Identity

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
3254 bits(8437)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	1687/3118(54%)	2197/3118(70%)	89/3118(2%)
Query 1	MSLALHELLVCCRGLENEKATERKKEVDRFRRLICSPDTEELDRTSKSGKGLTWD				60
Sbjct 1	MSL L++LL+CCR LE+++ATERKKEV++F+RLI P+T++ LDR S SK K L WDAV				60
Query 61	FRFLQKFLKKE TELLSQSGKANVSASTQANRQKKMQEISSLMKFFIRCANQRGPR				120
Sbjct 61	FRFLQK+++KETE L+ K NVSASTQA+RQKKMQEISSL+K+FI+CAN+R PRLKC EL				120
Query 121	ISHVVEVLQSPFSCVAYGEDYSSILLKNILSVRKYWCEMSQQQWHSLLDLFCGLFNR				180
Sbjct 121	++++++ ++ + YG D S+ILLK+ILSVRKYWCE+SQQQW L ++ L+ + ++ LNYIM				180
Query 181	SINRVQVSRIIYTVVWGCCVQTEGLSHTLFNFFLKALSNSRAEKQLMVLENLVS				240
Sbjct 181	++RV V+RII+ V GCC QT+GL+ +FF KA+ +R EK L ++++A+ +FL DVHRV				240
Query 241	RSVLLSCRKRVCGLGEEVLSMDCVYGMRPSSVLKEELVKFFQIQLFVHHPKGAKT				300
Sbjct 241	+++ ++ R RVC LG+E+L +L ++T R + LKE +++ FQ+Q+++HHPKGAKT E				300
Query 301	GAQAQDWWKRSQCLTYDALVSEISQIGSRGKYATGSRHIAVKENLIELTADVCHQL				360
Sbjct 301	GA KWRS L LYD LV+EIS IGSRGKY++G R+IAVKENLIEL AD+CHQ+FN				358
Query 361	QSTRVQEVTSVCRDTRDQSPQ---SCKRRRVELSNWELIRSKLQPHSDFDMIPWLQ				417
Sbjct 359	+ TR E++ S TQR+S CKR+++EL WE+I+ LQ +DFD++PWLQ+ EDTRSLEISQSYT				416
Query 418	AALISKYPSILLTDDVPLLGLLCLQGEQRRGERAPYVLRCLKELALCHAKSSANSSA				477
Sbjct 417	LISKYP+ L ++ PLL +L QL QQR GER PYVLRCL E+ALC K S S+ TQLISKYPASL				475
Query 478	CTAELGRLWARVWLALRGVSSAQTGSLCLELLRIMVQESLVPVDREFWKFVSGAVCK				537
Sbjct 476	++L +LW ++W + RG+SS Q + LL ++Q SLV VDREFWK+F+G+ C+PS QKSDLL				535
Query 538	LVSALSLTQALLKCSVPKSVHSRDATSVVLTADAGGEPPLRDSIISWLIMNEQNEE				597
Sbjct 536	+ LT AL VP +V ++ + SL++SI+ WL+ + + E + CPAVCCLTALTT				592
Query 598	CRPHLIISRDFPLYLIPRIVVSLTLKDSRAGLTFMGLKPCDFSPENSSLTETKATMDE				657
Sbjct 593	I+ +FP ++ +I+VSLT+K+ +A + F P+C E+ + + + E TEVPPILHSNPHL				647
Query 658	VESLFLQFSFDEAHSSAGFTVDKDSVYSEKQ---FTVIQALRSKLEHSLLSIAEQ				713
Sbjct 648	VE LFLQ +FD+ F EK Q F+V Q L+ L+ LL ++EQL VEELFLQTTFDKM---				703
Query 714	CYSPDSTNTPHECVLRCSLLIGVLAAYVCIGMLSEEQACLSPLFLKAKALVHEFSHY				773
Sbjct 704	YS + TN+ E ++RC LL+GVL Y +G+++EE+A S LF KAK+L+ + NYSSEITNS				761
Query 774	TAKSKLAENETLASVQSMLLCSDCI--CRREKDKMSTISRTLFMKTLPVRLNLDL				831

K+K E + S++++M LC+ C+ C ++ +K I+ F++ L +L+ND+ D+
 Sbjct 762 LFKNKTNEEFRIKSLRNMQLCTRCLSNCTKKSPNK---IASGFFLRLLTSKLMNDIADI 818
 Query 832 SKQLLSNSGKK-DTIVIESEPVDMTSRIQVDNQEEIDLFEDGDGTQHITSRPSQSNEEA 890
 K L S K D +ES D + ++V++Q ++LF D + S S +NE
 Sbjct 819 CKSLASFIKPPDRGEVESMEDDTNGNLMEVEDQSSMNLFND-----YPDSSVSDANE-P 872
 Query 891 ADSKFITGTKSALSSEEHLKQDLTFLSVLGFSLCASSELNGGFSFKPLDTQRKLLKLLD 950
 +S+ G + L+EE+LSKQDL FL +L FL LC ++ SF+ D +RKLL L+D
 Sbjct 873 GESQSTIGAINPLAEYLSKQDLLFLDMLKFLCLCVTTAQTNTVSFRAADIRKLLMLID 932
 Query 951 LADF--SQMLHLQMYLSLLKPLPAEVALDPEEFNALLRPLADVCSLYRQDQEVCSAILF 1008
 + ++ LHL MYL LLK+LP E L E+ LL+PL++VCSLYR+DQ+VC IL
 Sbjct 933 SSTLEPTKSLHLMYLMMLKELPGEYPLMEDVLELLKPLSNVCSLYRRDQDVCKTILN 992
 Query 1009 SLLPSIRCLGLSSSGSEQEEDMADIKGSLKLVISGFCLGKSGKCTSSVRVALRQCLLAL 1068
 +L ++ LG S+ SE + D +G L VI F L K K SVR+AL CL L
 Sbjct 993 HVLHVKNLQGSNMDSE---NTRDAQGQFLTIVIGAFWHLTKERKYIFSVMALVNCLKTL 1049
 Query 1069 LEADPCCKWAVLTLREEELPVSAVLSLLADSHQHVCMLTALSVEFLKKAHSSRKM- 1127
 LEADP KWA+L + ++ PV+ V + LAD+H V ML A S+ LF SSR +
 Sbjct 1050 LEADPYSKWAILNVMGKDFPVNEVFTQFLADNHQVRMLAAESINRLFQDTKGDSSRLLK 1109
 Query 1128 MLPLKNQQTAFENIYLKAEQEGIRROKN-CPSEDLPEDEFNRRATLLKSVSMVMSCSPVCE 1186
 LPLK QQTAFEN YLKAQEG+R + + + DE +NR++ LL +++V+SCSP+CE
 Sbjct 1110 ALPLKLQQTAFENAYLKAQEGMREMSHAENPETLDEIYNRKSVLTLIAVVLSCSPICE 1169
 Query 1187 KQALFALFQSYKENGIDEQLIKKVLRGISKSLGNRDHKSLSINSHLYYVAEWNQKQSDS 1246
 KQALFAL +S KENG++ L+KKVL +S++ G R + + SHL YLV EWLN + D+
 Sbjct 1170 KQALFALCKSVKENGLEPHLVKKVLEKVSSETFGYRRLEDFMASHLDYLVLEWLNQ--DT 1227
 Query 1247 SYTLQSFYPYALLDCCSLEEFFRSSYHVLIPHLVFLNDFEGVKSIGDHLGQDQWQKLLAKCF 1306
 Y L SFP+ LL+ ++E+F+RS Y VLIPHLV + F+ VKSI + + +DWK LL CF
 Sbjct 1228 EYNLSSFPFILLNYTNIEDFYRSCYKVLIPHLVIRSHFDEVKSIANQIQEDWKSLLTDCF 1287
 Query 1307 PKIMVNILPHFALAG-QDTHVAQQREKAHRVYDILKNSNCLGKQQIDS LICNNLPDIIVVE 1365
 PKI+VNILP+FA G +D+ +AQQRE A +VYD+LK+ N LGKQ ID L +NLP+IVVE
 Sbjct 1288 PKILVNILPYFAYEGTRDSGMAQQRETATKVYDMLKSENLLGKQ-IDHLFISNLPDIIVVE 1346
 Query 1366 LLMTLHE----TAGDKGDLQKFTGELDPAPNPPFFSSYVIKATLDYLSKCHSANHKS LVA 1421
 LLMTLHE +A DL F+G+LDPAPNPP F S+VIKAT Y+S CH KS++
 Sbjct 1347 LLMTLHEPANSASQSTDLCDFSGDLDPAPNPPHFP SHVIKATFAYISNCHKTKLKSILE 1406
 Query 1422 ILSKTPMSIQRILVAVCQKADETTNAYERHRILMMYHLFVSLLLKEVKDGLGGAWAFVLR 1481
 ILSK+P S Q+IL+A+C+++A ET N Y++HRIL +YHLFVSLLLK++K GLGGAWAFVLR
 Sbjct 1407 ILSKSPDSYQKILLAIQEAETNNVYKCHRILKIYHLFVSLLLKDIKSGLGGAWAFVLR 1466
 Query 1482 DIIYTLIHINSRSSQQDEVSTRSLSCDLLSLVCQTAVEYCDDALESHLQVIVGTLTA 1541
 D+IYTLIH+IN R S +VS RS SLCCDLLS VCQTAV YC DALE+HL VIVGTL
 Sbjct 1467 DVIYTLIHYNQRPSICIMDVSLRSFSLCCDLLSVCQTAVTYCKDALENHLHVIVGTLIP 1526
 Query 1542 QVTEQSAISEQVLSLLRFLVMENPENRMLRKSIPLLPEPFEPQPNFAELRAAQHALKYSSG 1601
 V EQ + +QVL LL++LV++N +N L +I LL+PFP+ F +LR Q +KYS G
 Sbjct 1527 LVYEQVEVQKQVLDLLKYLVIDNKDNLNLYITIKLLDPFDPHVFKDLRITQQKIKYSRG 1586
 Query 1602 AFTLRQEIHFSLVASCDLPLARLEGLKDLKRQLHSHKQQIGQLLKECHADLDSCILVN 1661
 F+L +EI HFLSV+ D+LPL RLEGLKDL+RQL HK Q+ +++ + I+V
 Sbjct 1587 PFSLLLEEINHFSLSVYDALPLTRLEGLKDLRRQLELHKDQMVDIRASQDNPQDGMVK 1646
 Query 1662 LVLNLLQLCKIAANHPGGDIMKAAGRCLGELGPVDLSSIALHHGKDQLYARAACL FHNV 1721
 LV+NLLQL K+A NH G +++++A G CLGE+GP+D S+IA+ H KD Y +A KLF +
 Sbjct 1647 LVLNLLQLSKMAINHTGEKEVLEAVGSLGEGPIDFSTIAIQHSKDASYTKALKLKFEDK 1706
 Query 1722 PHQWIFIILNSMDNALTNHSIAVRQTAGLCIKDILATQSGIEFGEIHKSKRDPLLAYLNP 1781
 QW FI+L ++N L + VR A C+K+ILAT++G F EI+K DP+LAYL P
 Sbjct 1707 ELQWTFIIMTYLNNTLVEDCVKVRSAAVTCLKNILATKTGHSFWEIYKMTTDPMLAYLQP 1766

Query	1782	FRSSKKREPIMAMDVTPESRDRLTSADLWLMQPDGHKDWLKNLCMALLDSGGVRNEALLL	1841
Sbjct	1767	FR+S+K+ + + L +LW+ + H W+K L A LDSGG + E L L FRTRSRRKFLVPRFDKENPFEGLDLNLWIPLSENHDIWIKTLTCAFLDSGGTKCEILQL	1826
Query	1842	TRPLCEVKTDFCQRMLPLFVHDILLGDVDGSRQLLSTHIQSFFSQCRRPSTPTSRPTTP	1901
Sbjct	1827	+P+CEVKTDFCQ +LP +HDILL D + SWR LLSTH+Q FF+ C R + TSR TTP LKPMCEVKTDFCQTVLPYLIHDILLQDTNESWRNLLSTHVQGFSTCLRHFSTSRSTTP	1886
Query	1902	MLSDSGNTTDAANQCQIDKASLRSM LAVIDHLRQSRPLAPGSNEYGTVCDSNFWLDLNY	1961
Sbjct	1887	DS ++ +C +DK S R+MLAV+D++R+Q RP + GT+ + FWLDLNY ANLDS--ESEHFFRCCLDKKSQRMTLAVVDYMRQKRPSS-----GTIFNDAFWLDLNY	1938
Query	1962	LEVAGAAQMCSAHFTALLYSEIYVDKIRSNMEQNRRSQSRASRRITFEDNSQTLVSNLN	2021
Sbjct	1939	LEVA AQ C+AHFTALLY+EIY DK +S +Q +RS + FE+ SQ+ ++S+L+ LEVAKVAQSCAAHFTALLYAEIYADK-KSMDDQEKRS-----LAFEEGQSSTTISSLS	1990
Query	2022	ERSLEDSGFSLQDLLIEVYRCIGEPDSLYGCGGGKLTSPLTRIRTYEHEAMWEKALVSYD	2081
Sbjct	1991	E+S E++G SLQDLL+E+YR IGEPSLYGCGGGK+ P+TR+RTYEHEAMW KALV+YD EKSKEETGISLQDLLLEIYRSIGEPDSLYGCGGGKMLQPITRLRRTYEHEAMWGKALVTD	2050
Query	2082	LHSNLPEVTRQIGIVEGLQNFGLCSILSTYLHGLEKDGMEWGPPELRELRFOAAWRSTQWD	2141
Sbjct	2051	L + +P TRQ GI++ LQN GLC ILS YL GL+ + +W PEL EL +QAAWR+ QWD LETaipSSSTRQAGIIQALQNLGLCHILSVYLGKLDYENKDWCPPEELHYQAAWRNMQWD	2110
Query	2142	CDLPERNEKLPKGINESLFNALQALRDKEFSLFEQTLNARGREVEELCRGSLEAVSSLY	2201
Sbjct	2111	E +ESL+NALQ+LRD+EFS F ++L YAR +VEEE+C+ SLE+V SLY HCTSvsKEVEGTSYHESLYNALQSLRDREFSTFYESLKYARVKEVEEMCKRSLESVSYLY	2170
Query	2202	PALCNLQRISELQSVEELFSRPVTDSSLNEVYRKWQHSDDLTDSDFLVPEVLALRSSI	2261
Sbjct	2171	P L LQ I EL+S+ ELFSR VT L+EVY KWQ+HS LL DSDFS EP++ALR+ I PTLSRLQAIGELESIGELFSRSVTHRQLSEVYIKWQKHSQLLKDSDFSQEPIMALRTVI	2230
Query	2262	QEALISSETDPDRKNYLISTYSSHLMELCRLARSAGNTQLAERAVFHMKQHNLVMSGSGS	2321
Sbjct	2231	E L+ E D ++ + + HL+EL LAR+ NTQL ERA+F +KQ+N V G LEILMEKEMDNSQRECIKDILTKHLVELSILARTFKNTQLPERAIFQIKQYNSVSCGVSE	2290
Query	2322	SSWAWQLEEAQVFWKKEHGLALELLKQMIHKLD-DLVCVNPVAVPVYSECLRLCGSWLA	2380
Sbjct	2291	WQLEEAQVFW KKE LAL +LKQMI KLD NP++ Y+ECLR+CG+WLA ----WQLEEAQVFWAKKEQSLALSILKQMIKKLDASCAANNPSLKLTYTECLRVCGNWLA	2346
Query	2381	ESCLES PAVILENYLERAVEVEIEEHCGGLSKLQSQKTQAYFSLARFSDAQYQGIENYMK	2440
Sbjct	2347	E+CLE+PAVI++ YLE+AVEV + G +L++ K +A+ SLARFSD QYQ IENYMK ETCLENPAVIMQTYLEKAVEVAGNYDGESSDELNRNGKMKAFSLARFSDTQYQRIENYMK	2406
Query	2441	SSEFENKHALLEKAKEEVDLMRERKVNNNRYTVKVQRELELDVKALANLQADRNRFLKKA	2500
Sbjct	2407	SSEFENK ALL++AKEEV L+RE K+ NRYTVKVQRELELD AL L+ DR RFL KA SSEFENKQALLKRAKEEVGLLREHKIQTNRYTVKVQRELELDELALRALKEDRKRFLCKA	2466
Query	2501	VENYIECLELGEHDTWVFRSLWLENADVKAVNDKMKSGVKKIPSYKFLPLMYQLAAR	2560
Sbjct	2467	VENYI CL GEEHD WVFR SLWLEN+ V VN MK KIP+YKFLPLMYQLAAR VENYINCLLSGEEHDMWVFRSLWLENSGVSEVNGMMKRDGMKIPTYKFLPLMYQLAAR	2526
Query	2561	MGTKVSSMASQDVGFFHVLNELICQSSVDHPHHTLFIIILALVNANKDDSF-----RS	2614
Sbjct	2527	MGTK+ + GFH VLN LI + S+DHPHHTLFIIILAL NAN+D+ + RS MGTKMMGGL----GFHEVLNLLISRISMDHPHHTLFIIILALANANRDEFLLTKPEVARRS	2581
Query	2615	RSSKSSARQPSPDLERAEVARKIIDVVRKKRAKMKVVDIEMLCNAYITLAYMDASRHKTE	2674
Sbjct	2582	R +K+ +Q S LD +R E A +II +R +R +MV+ +E LC+AYI LA +DA++ KT+ RITKNVPKQSSQLDEDRTAANRIICTIRSRPQMVRVSEALCDAYIILANLDATQWKTQ	2641
Query	2675	KKAIPIPAEQPLMQIKDLEDVVIPTMDIKVDPSGRYEDVTVRSFKRHFHLAGGVNLPKI	2734
Sbjct	2642	+K I IPA+QP+ ++K+LEDV++PTM+IKVD +G Y ++VT++SFK F LAGGVNLPKI RKGINIPADQPITKLNLEDVVPTMEIKVDHTGEYGNLVTIQSFKAERLAGGVNLPKI	2701
Query	2735	IDCEGSDGISRRQLVKGQDDLQDAVMQVFMHCSTLLQRNAETRKRKLNIRRYKVPFSS	2794

IDC GSDG RRQLVKG+DDL RQDAVMQQVF MC+TLLQRN ETRKRKL I YKVVP S
 Sbjct 2702 IDCVGS DKGERRQLVKGRDDL RQDAVMQQVFQMCNTLLQRNTETRRKRLTICTYKVVPLS 2761
 Query 2795 QRSGLVEWCSGTVP IGEFLVDPQKGAHKRFRPQD WANMLCRKMMEAQRMEFNDKLQAF 2854
 QRSGLVEWC+GTVPIGEFLV+ + GAHKR+RP D++ C+KMMME Q+ F +K + F
 Sbjct 2762 QRSGLVEWCTGTVP IGEFLVNNEDGAHKRYRPNDFSAFQCQKMMMEVQKKSFEKEYEVFM 2821
 Query 2855 EVCQNF RPFVFRYFCMERFLDP AIWLERR LAYTRSVATSSIVGYIVGLGDRHIQNIL IDEQ 2914
 +VCQNF+PVFRYFCME+FLDP AIW E+RLAYTRSVATSSIVGYI+GLGDRH+QNILI+EQ
 Sbjct 2822 DVCQNFQPVFRYFCMEKFLDP AIWF EKRLAYTRSVATSSIVGYILGLGDRHVQNIL INEQ 2881
 Query 2915 TSELVHIDLGVAFEQ GKILPTPETVPFRLSRDIVDGMGITGVEGVFRRCC EKTMEVMR 2974
 ++ELVHIDLGVAFEQ GKILPTPETVPFRL+RDIVDGMGITGVEGVFRRCC EKTMEVMR+S
 Sbjct 2882 SAELVHIDLGVAFEQ GKILPTPETVPFRLTRDIVDGMGITGVEGVFRRCC EKTMEVMRNS 2941
 Query 2975 QEALLTIVEVLLYDPLFDW TMNPLKAFYLQQHDEQ AELNATLNPTPGGDEIETHRKASD- 3033
 QE LLTIVEVLLYDPLFDW TMNPLKA YLQQ E L+PT D+ E R SD
 Sbjct 2942 QETLLTIVEVLLYDPLFDW TMNPLKALYLQRPED---ETELHPTLNADDQECKRNLSDI 2998
 Query 3034 SQSFNKVAERVLLRLQEK LKGVEDGTVLSVGGQVNLLIQQAIDPKNLSR LFPGWQAWV 3091
 QSFNKVAERVL+RLQEK LKGV E+GTVLSVGGQVNLLIQQA+DPKNLSR LFPGW+AWV
 Sbjct 2999 DQSFNKVAERVLMRLQEK LKGV EEGTVLSVGGQVNLLIQQAIDPKNLSR LFPGWKAWV 3056

b. Alignment of the TAN Domain showing 64% sequence identity (amino acids 8-165 in the human sequence)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
216 bits(551)	5e-78	Compositional matrix adjust.	101/157(64%)	132/157(84%)	0/157(0%)
Query 1	LLVCCR	GLENEKATERKKEVDRFRRLICSPDTVEELDRTSGSKGSKQLTWD	AVFRFLQKF	60	
Sbjct 1	LL+CCR	LE+++ATERKKEV++F+RLI P+T++ LDR S SK K L	WDAVFRFLQK+		
Query 61	LKKETELLQSGKANVSASTQANRQKMKQEISSLMKFFIRCANQRGPR	LKCAELISHVVEV	120		
Sbjct 61	++KETE L+ K NVSASTQA+RQKMKQEISSL+K+FI+CAN+R	PRLKC EL+++++			
Query 121	LQSPFSCVAYGEDYSSILLKNILSVRKYWCEMSQQQW	157			
Sbjct 121	++ + YG D S+ILLK+ILSVRKYWCE+SQQQW	157			

c. Alignment of the HEAT Repeat Motifs Showing (amino acids 166-1939 of the human sequence)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
1502 bits(3889)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	841/1815(46%)	1170/1815(64%)	64/1815(3%)
Query 3	LLDLFCGLFNRGTRSINRVQVSRIIYTVVWGCCVQTEGLSHTLFNFFLKALSNSRAEKQL	62			
Sbjct 2	L ++ L+ + ++ ++RV V+RII+ V GCC QT+GL+ +FF KA+ +R EK				
Query 63	MVLENLVS AVNVFLRSVLLSCRKRVCGLGEEVLS DMLCVYTGMRPSSVLKEELVKFFQIQ	122			
Sbjct 62	L ++++A+ +FL+++ ++ R RVC LG+E+L +L ++T R + LKE +++ FQ+Q				

Query	123	LFVHHPKGAktiETGAQAQDwVKwRSQlCTLYDALVSEISQIGSRGKYATGSRHIAVKEN +++HHPKGAkt E GA KWRS L LYD LV+EIS IGSRGKY++G R+IAVKEN	182
Sbjct	122	IYIHHPKGAktQEKGAYES--TKwRSILYNLYDLLVNEISHIGSRGKYSSGFRNIAVKEN	179
Query	183	LIELTADVChQlFNQSTRVQEVtSSVCRDTRQDspQ---SCKRRRVELSNWELIRSKLQP LIEL AD+ChQ+FN+ TR E++ S TQR+S CKR+++EL WE+I+ LQ	239
Sbjct	180	LIELMADICHQVFNEdTRSLAISQSYTT-TQRESSDYSVPCKRKKIELG-WEVIKdHLQK	237
Query	240	HHSDFDMIPWLQVTAALISKYPSILLTDDVVPllGLLcQLQGEQRRGERAPYVLRCLKE +DFD++PWLQ+ LISKYP+ L ++ PLL +L QL QQR GER PYVLRCL E	299
Sbjct	238	SQNDFDLVPWLQIATQLISKYPASLpNCELSPLLMILSQLL-PQQRHGERTPYVLRCLTE	296
Query	300	LALChAKSSANSSACTAELGRlWARVWVlALRGVSSAQTSGLCLEllRIMVQESLVPVDR +ALC K S S+ ++L +LW ++W + RG+SS Q + LL ++Q SLV VDR	359
Sbjct	297	VALCQDKRSNLESSQKSDLLKLNKIWCITFRGISSEQIQAENFLLGAIIGSLVEVDR	356
Query	360	EFWkVfSGAVCKPSLVSALSltQALLKCSVPKSVHSRDATSVVLTdAGGEPpSLRDSIIS EFWk+F+G+ C+PS + LT AL VP +V ++ + SL++SI+	419
Sbjct	357	EFWkLFTGSACRPSPAVCCLTLALTTSIVPGTVKMGIEQNMCEVNRSF---SLKESIMK	413
Query	420	WLIMNEQNEETEENCRPHLIISRDfPLYlIPRIvVSLTLKDSRAGLTFLMGSLKpDCfSP WL+ + + E + I+ +FP ++ +I+VSLT+K+ +A + F P+C	479
Sbjct	414	WLLFYQLEGDLENSTEVPPIlHSNfPHLVLEKILVSLTMKNCKAAMNFQSV--PEC---	468
Query	480	ENSLTETKATMDEVESLFLQfSFDEAHSSAGFTVDKDSVYSEKpQ---FTVIQALRSK E+ + + + EVE LFLQ +FD+ F EK Q F+V Q L+	535
Sbjct	469	EHHQKDKKEELSFSEVE-LFLQTTFDKM---DFLTIVRECGIEKHQSSIGFsvHQNlKES	523
Query	536	LEHSLLSIAEQlFTCYSPDSTNTpHECVLRcVSLlIGVLAAYVCIGMLSEEQACLSPFL L+ LL ++EQL YS + TN+ E ++RC LL+GVL Y +G+++EE+A S LF	595
Sbjct	524	LDRCLLGLSEQLLNNYSSEITNS--ETLVRCRLLVGLVGCYCYMGVIAEEEEAYKSELFQ	581
Query	596	KAKALVHEfSHYTSTAKSKLAENETLASVQSVMLLCSDCI--CRREKGDkMSTISRTlFM KAK+L+ + K+K E + S++++M LC+ C+ C ++ +K I+ F+	653
Sbjct	582	KAKSLMQCAGESITLFKNKTNEEFRIgSLRNMMLQCTRCLSNCTKkSPNK---IASGFFL	638
Query	654	KTLpVRLlNDLCDMSKQLLSNSGKK-DTIVIESEPVDmQTSRIQVDNQEIdLFEDGDGT + L +L+ND+ D+ K L S K D +ES D + ++V++Q ++LF D	712
Sbjct	639	RLLTSKLMNDIADICKSLASfIKKPFDRGEVESMEDDTNGNLMEVEDQSSMNLfND----	694
Query	713	QHITSRPSQSNEEAADSKfITGTksALSEEHLskQDLTFLSVLGFLSLCASSELNGGfSF + S S +NE +S+ G + L+EE+LSKQDL FL +L FL LC ++ SF	772
Sbjct	695	-YPDSSVSDANE-PGESQSTIGAINPLAEEYLSKQDLFLDMLKfLCLCVTTAQTNTVfSf	752
Query	773	KPLDTRKLLKLLDLADf--SQMLHLQMYLSLLKkLPAEVASLDPEEFNALLRPLADVCS + D +RkLL L+d + ++ LHL MYL LLK+LP E L E+ LL+PL++VCS	830
Sbjct	753	RAADIRKLLMLIDSSTLEPTKSLHLHMYLMLLkELPGEEYPLMEDVLELLKPLSNVCS	812
Query	831	LYRQDQEVCSAILfSLLPSIRCLGLSSSGSEQEEDMADIKGSLLKVISGfCFLGKSGKCT LYR+dQ+VC IL +L ++ LG S+ SE + D +G L VI F L K K	890
Sbjct	813	LYRRDQDVCKTILNHVLHVVKNLGQSNMDSSE---NTRDAQQFLTVIGAFWHLTKERKYI	869
Query	891	SSVRVALRQCLLALLEADpCCKWAVLTLREEELPVSAVLSSLLADSHQHVCMlTALSVES SVR+AL CL LLEADP KWA+L + ++ PV+ V + LAD+H V ML A S+	950
Sbjct	870	FsvRMALVnCLKTLLLEADpYSKwAILNVMGKDFPVNEVfTQFLADNHHQVRMLAAESINR	929
Query	951	LFLKkALHSSRkM-MLPLKNQQTAFENIYLKAQEGIRRQKN-CPSEDLpDETFNRRATLL LF SSR + LPLK QQTAFEN YLKAQEG+R + + + DE +NR++ LL	1008
Sbjct	930	LFQDTKGDSSRLLKALPLKlQQTAFENAYLKAQEGMREMSHAENPETLDEIYNRkSVLL	989
Query	1009	KSVSMVMSCSPVCEKQALFALFQSYKENGIDeQLIKKVLRGISKSLGNRDHkSLINSHLY +++V+S CSP CEKQALFAL +S KENG++ L+KKVL +S++ G R + + SHL	1068
Sbjct	990	TLIAVVLSCSP-CEKQALFALCKSVKENGLEPHLVKKVLEKvSETFGYRRLEDFMASHLD	1048
Query	1069	YLVAEWLNQKQSDSSYTLQSFpYALLDCCSLEEFFRSSYHVLIpHLVFLNDfEGVKSIGD YLV EWLN + D+ Y L SFP+ LL+ ++E+f+RS Y VLIPHLV + F+ VKSI +	1128

Sbjct 1049 YLVLEWLNQ--DTEYNLSSFPFILLNYTNIEDFYRSCYKVLIPHLVIRSHFDEVKSIAN 1106

Query 1129 HLGQDWKQLLAKCFPKIMVNILPHFALA-GQDTHVAQQREKAHRVYDILKNSNCLGKQQI 1187
+ +DWK LL CFPKI+VNILP+FA +D+ +AQQRE A VYD+LK+ N LGKQ I

Sbjct 1107 QIQEDWKSLLTDCFPKILVNILPYFAYEDAKDSGMAQQREIASTVYDMLKSENLLGKQ-I 1165

Query 1188 DSLICNNLPDIVVELLMTLHE----TAGDKGDLQKFTGELDPAPNPPFFSSYVIKATLDY 1243
D L +NLP+IVVELLMTLHE +A DL F+G+LDPAPNPP F S+VIKAT Y

Sbjct 1166 DHLFISNLPEIVVELLMTLHEPANSSASQSTDLCDFSGDLDAPNPPHFP SHVIKATFAY 1225

Query 1244 LSKCHSANHKSILVAIILSKTPMSIQRILVAVCQKADETTNAYERHRILMMYHLFVSLLLKE 1303
+S CH KS++ ILSK+P S Q+IL+A+C++A ET N Y++HRIL +YHLFVSLLLK+

Sbjct 1226 ISNCHKTKLKSILEILSKSPDSYQKILLAICEQAAETNNVYKHKRILKIYHLFVSLLLKD 1285

Query 1304 VKDGLGGAWAFVLRDIYTLIHHINSRSSQQDEVSTRSLSLCCDLLSLVCQTAVEYCDDA 1363
+K GLGGAWAFVLRD+IYTLIH+IN R S +VS RS SLCCDLLS VCQTAV YC DA

Sbjct 1286 IKSGLGGAWAFVLRDVIYTLIHYINQRPSCIMDVSLRSFSLCCDLLSQVCQTAVTYCKDA 1345

Query 1364 LESHQV-VGTLTAQVTEQSAISEQVLSLLRFLVMENPENRMLRKSIPLLPEFPQPNFA 1422
LE+HL V VGTL V EQ + +QVL LL++LV++N +N L +I LL+PFP+ F

Sbjct 1346 LENHLHVIVGTLIPLVYEQVEVQKQVLDLLKYLVIDNKDNENLYITIKLLDPFPDHVFK 1405

Query 1423 ELRAAQHALKYSSGAFTLRQEIEHFLSVASCDLPLARLEGLKDLKRQLHSHKQQIGQLL 1482
+LR Q +KYS G F+L +EI HFLSV+ D+LPL RLEGLKDL+RQL HK Q+ ++

Sbjct 1406 DLRITQQKIKYSRGPFSLLEEINHFVSVYDALPLTRLEGLKDLRRQLELHKDQMV DIM 1465

Query 1483 KECHADLDSCILVNLVNLQLCKIAANHPGGDIMKAAGRCLGELGPVDLSSIALHHGK 1542
+ + I+V LV+NLLQL K+A NH G +++++A G CLGE+GP+D S+IA+ H K

Sbjct 1466 RASQDNPDGIMVKLVNLLQLSKMAINHTGEKEVLEAVGSCLEVGPIDFSTIAIQHSK 1525

Query 1543 DQLYARAALFHNVPHQWIFIIILNSMDNALTNHSIAVRQTAGLCIKDILATQSGIEFGEI 1602
D Y +A KLF + QW FI+L ++N L + VR A C+K+ILAT++G F EI

Sbjct 1526 DASYTKALKLFEDKELQWTFIMLTYLNNLTVEDCVKVRSAAVTCLKNILATKTGHSFWEI 1585

Query 1603 HSKSRDPLLAYLNPFRSSKKREPIMAMDVTPESRDRLTSADLWLMQPDGHKDWLKNLCMA 1662
+K DP+LAYL PFR+S+K+ + + L +LW+ + H W+K L A

Sbjct 1586 YKMTTDPMLAYLQPFRTSRKKFLEVPRFDKENPFEGLDLWIPLENHDIWIKTLTCA 1645

Query 1663 LLDSGGVREALLLRPLCEVKTDFCQRMLPLFVHDILLGDVDGSRQLLSTHIQSFFSQ 1722
LDSGG + E L L +P+CEVKTDFCQ +LP +HDILL D + SWR LLSTH+Q FF+

Sbjct 1646 FLDSGGTKCEILQLLQKPMCEVKTDFCQTVLPYLIHDILLQDTNESWRNLLSTHVQGFSTS 1705

Query 1723 CRRPSTPTSRPTTPMLSDSGNTTDAANQCQIDKASLRSM LAVIDHLRQQSRPLAPGSNEY 1782
C R + TSR TTP DS ++ +C +DK S R+MLAV+D++R+Q RP +

Sbjct 1706 CLRHFSQTSRSTTPANLDS--ESEHFFRCLDKKSQRTMLAVVDYMRQRKRPSS----- 1757

Query 1783 GTVCDSNFWLDLNYL 1797
GT+ + FWLDLNYL

Sbjct 1758 GTIFNDAFWLDLNYL 1772

d. Alignment of FAT Domain showing 73% sequence identity (amino acids 1939-1566 in the human sequence)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
764 bits(1974)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	386/644(60%)	471/644(73%)	18/644(2%)

Query 1 EVAGAAQMCSAHFTALLYSEIYVDKIRSNMEQNRRSQSRASRRITFEDNSQTLVSUNLNE 60
EVA AQ C+AHFTALLY+EIY DK +S +Q +RS + FE+ SQ+ ++S+L+E

Sbjct 1 EVAKVAQSCAAHFTALLYAEIYADK-KSMDDQEKRS-----LAFEEGSQSTTISSLSE 52

Query 61 RSLEDSGFSLQDLLIEVYRCIGEPDSLYGCGGGKLTSPTRIRTYEHEAMWEKALVSYDL 120
 +S E++G SLQDLL+E+YR IGEPDSLYGCGGGK+ P+TR+RTYEHEAMW KALV+YDL
 Sbjct 53 KSKEETGISLQDLLLEIYRSIGEPDSLYGCGGGKMLQPITRLRITYEHEAMWGKALVTYDL 112

Query 121 HSNLPEVTRQIGIVEGLQNFGLCSILSTYHLGLEKDGMEWGPPELRELRFQAAWRSTQWDC 180
 + +P TRQ GI++ LQN GLC ILS YL GL+ + +W PEL EL +QAAWR+ QWD
 Sbjct 113 ETAIPSSTRQAGIIQALQNLGLCHILSVYKGLDYENKDWCPPEELHYQAAWRNMQWDH 172

Query 181 DLPERNEKLPKGINESLFNALQALRDKEFSLFEQTLNYARGREVEELCRGSLEAVSSLYP 240
 E +ESL+NALQ+LRD+EFS F ++L YAR +EVEE+C+ SLE+V SLYP
 Sbjct 173 CTSVSKEVEGTSYHESLYNALQSLRDREFSTFYESLKYARVKEVEEMCKRSLESVSYLYP 232

Query 241 ALCNLQRISLQSVVEELFSRPVTDSSLNEVYRKWQHQSDLLTDSDFSLVEPVLALRSSIQ 300
 L LQ I EL+S+ ELFSR VT L+EVY KWQ+HS LL DSDFS EP++ALR+ I
 Sbjct 233 TLSRLQAIGELSIGELFSRSVTHRQLSEVYIKWQKHSQLLKDSDFSQEPIMALRTVIL 292

Query 301 EALISSETDPDRKNYLITYSSHLMELCRLARSAGNTQLAERAVFHMKQHNLVMSGSGSS 360
 E L+ E D ++ + + HL+EL LAR+ NTQL ERA+F +KQ+N V G
 Sbjct 293 EILMEKEMDNSQRECIKDILTKHLVELSILARTFKNTQLPERAIFQIKQYNSVSCGVSE - 351

Query 361 SWAWQLEEAQVFWVWKEHGLALELLKQMIHKLD-DLVCVNPVAVPVYSECLRLCGSWLAE 419
 WQLEEAQVFW KKE LAL +LKQMI KLD NP++ Y+ECLR+CG+WLAE
 Sbjct 352 ---WQLEEAQVFWAKKEQSLALSILKQMIKKLDASCAANNPSLKLTYTECLRVCGNWLAE 408

Query 420 SCLESPAIVILENYLERAVEVIEEHCGGLKSKLQSQKTQAYFSLARFSDAQYQGIENYMK 479
 +CLE+PAVI++ YLE+AVEV + G +L++ K +A+ SLARFSD QYQ IENYMK
 Sbjct 409 TCLENPAVIMQTYLEKAVEVAGNYDGESSDELNRNGMKAFSLARFSDTQYQRIENYMK 468

Query 480 SEFENKHALLEKAKEEVDLMRERKVNMRNRYTVKVQRELELDVKALANLQADRNRFLKAV 539
 SEFENK ALL++AKEEV L+RE K+ NRYTVKVQRELELD AL L+ DR RFL KAV
 Sbjct 469 SEFENKQALLKRAKEEVGLLREHKIQTNRNRYTVKVQRELELDELALRALKEDRKRFLCKAV 528

Query 540 ENYIECLELGEHDTWVFRSLWLENADVAVNDKMKSGVKKIPSYKFLPLMYQLAARM 599
 ENYI CL GEEHD WVFR SLWLEN+ V VN MK KIP+YKFLPLMYQLAARM
 Sbjct 529 ENYINCLLSGEEHDMWVFRCLSLWLENSGVSEVNGMMKRDGMKIPTYKFLPLMYQLAARM 588

Query 600 GTKVSSSMASQDVGFFHVLNELICQSSVDHPHHTLFILALVNA 643
 GTK+ + GFH VLN LI + S+DHPHHTLFILAL NA
 Sbjct 589 GTKMMGGL-----GFHEVLNLLISRISMDHPHHTLFILALANA 627

e. Alignment of the Kinase Domain showing 84% sequence identity (amino acids 2712- 2962 in the human sequence)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
450 bits(1158)	1e-167	Compositional matrix adjust.	211/251(84%)	232/251(92%)	0/251(0%)
Query 1	RRQLVKGRDDLQDAVMQVQFQMCNTLLQRNTETRKRKLNIRRYKVVVPSQRSGVLEWCS	60			
Sbjct 1	RRQLVKGRDDLQDAVMQVQFQMCNTLLQRNTETRKRKLI YKVVVPSQRSGVLEWC+	60			
Query 61	GTVPIGEFLVDPQKGAHKRFRPQDANMLCRKKMMEAQRMEFNDKLAFTVCQNFQRPVF	120			
Sbjct 61	GTVPIGEFLVNNEDGAHKRYRPNDFSAFQCQKMMMEVQKKSFEKEYEVFMDVCQNFQPVF	120			

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Query 121 RYFCMERFLDPAIWLERRLAYTRSVATSSIVGYIVGLGDRHIQNILIDEQTSSELVHIDLG 180
RYFCME+FLDPAIW E+RLAYTRSVATSSIVGYI+GLGDRH+QNILI+EQ++ELVHIDLG
Sbjct 121 RYFCMEKFLDPAIWFEKRLAYTRSVATSSIVGYILGLGDRHVQNILINEQSAELVHIDLG 180

Query 181 VAFEQGKILPTPETVPFRLSRDIVDGMGITGVEGVFRRCCCKTMEVMRSSQEALLTIVEV 240
VAFEQGKILPTPETVPFRL+RDIVDGMGITGVEGVFRRCCCKTMEVMR+SQE LLTIVEV
Sbjct 181 VAFEQGKILPTPETVPFRLTRDIVDGMGITGVEGVFRRCCCKTMEVMRNSQETLLTIVEV 240

Query 241 LLYDPLFDWTM 251
LLYDPLFDWTM
Sbjct 241 LLYDPLFDWTM 251

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f. Alignment of the FATC Domain showing 94% sequence identity (amino acids 3023-3056 of the human sequence)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
65.9 bits(159)	5e-23	Compositional matrix adjust.	31/33(94%)	33/33(100%)	0/33(0%)
Query 1		TVLSVGGQVNLLIQQAMDPKNLSRLFPGWQAWV	33		
		TVLSVGGQVNLLIQQA+DPKNLSRLFPGW+AWV			
Sbjct 1		TVLSVGGQVNLLIQQAIDPKNLSRLFPGWKAWV	33		

Appendix 6.3 Protein-Protein Blast Sequence Alignment of the TDP1 zebrafish and human sequences

a. Alignment of the Full Protein Sequence Showing 55% Sequence Identity

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Green – Conserved DNA binding residues, yellow- conserved N-terminal active site residues, pink- conserved C-terminal active site residues

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
693 bits(1788)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	352/638(55%)	445/638(69%)	53/638(8%)
Query 1	MSQDSQHGWKWSISDSEDEDIIPPTPQKDSVKPIVKPDSQSKPEETPTFLKQEPRLSPKRN	60			
	MSQ+ +G+W+IS S++ + P P K S ++ + EPR +				
Sbjct 1	MSQEGDYGRWTISSDSESEEEKPKDPKPTSSLLCARQGAA-----NEPRYT----	47			
Query 61	ENSVKTASAPSMGSEARKSAHVNQANPVKYERNAS---PAVKRKRETEEGWNLSSSDDE	117			
	SEA+K+AH + +PVK+ S P ++ E+ GW LSSSDDE				
Sbjct 48	-----CSEAQKAAHKRKRKISPVKFSNTDSVLPPKRQKSGSQEDLGWCLSSSDDE	95			
Query 118	T--PAPRNEPQKVNISPKRK-----KKTEDKRPPSPHGTSYYKEEPADFFET----	162			
	P+ + +KV I ++ ++TE+ P+ H +E D +ET				
Sbjct 96	LQPEMPQKQAEKVVIKKEKDISAPNDGTAQRTENHGAPACHRL----KEEEDYETSSEG	151			
Query 163	----NLMPTNDIYRFYLNKVTGIPKKYNTGALHIKEILSPMFGTLKESVQFNFCDFIPWM	218			
	+++ + ++FYL +V+G+ KYN+GALHIK+ILSP+FGTL S QFNFCF+ W+				
Sbjct 152	QDIWDMLDKGNPFQFYLTRVSGVKPKYNSGALHIKDILSPLFGTLVSSAQFNFCDFVDWL	211			
Query 219	VEQYPPEFRNKPVVLVHGKRESKACLIEQAKPYPHISFCQAKLDIAFGTHHTKMMLLWY	278			
	V+QYPPEFR KP++LVHG+KRE+KA L QAKPY +IS CQAKLDIAFGTHHTKMMLL Y				
Sbjct 212	VKQYPPEFRKKPILLVHGDKREAKHLHAQAKPYENISLCQAKLDIAFGTHHTKMMLL Y	271			
Query 279	EEGFRVILTSNLIIRADWYQKTQGMWMSPLYPRLPQGSPTAGESLTGFKRDLLEYLEAY	338			
	EEG RV+I TSNLI ADW+QKTQG+W+SPLYPR+ G+ +GES T FK DL+ YL AY				
Sbjct 272	EEGLRVVIHTSNLIHADWHQKTQGIWLSPLYPRIADGT-HKSGESPTHFKADLISYLMAY	330			
Query 339	RAPELANWIERIKQHDLSETRVYLIGSTPGRYQGPAMEKWHGLRLRKLLEHTQPMQNEE	398			
	AP L WI+ I +HDLSET VYLIGSTPGR+QG + WGH RL+KLL +H M N E				
Sbjct 331	NAPSLKEWIDVIHKHDLSETNVYLIGSTPGRFQGSQKDNWGHFRLKLLKDHASSMPNAE	390			
Query 399	RWHVLGQFSSIGSMGLDKTKWLAAEFQRTLTTLGKAGKSLASPETQMLLIYPSVENVRTS	458			
	W V+GQFSS+GS+G D++KWL +EF+ ++ TLGK K+ + LIYPSVENVRTS				
Sbjct 391	SWPVVGQFSSVGS LGADESKWLCSEFKESMLTLGKESKTPGKSSVPLYLIYPSVENVRTS	450			
Query 459	LEGYPAGGSLPYYSIQTAQKQLWLHSYFHGWHADVTGRSNAMPHIKTYMRISPDFQLAWF	518			
	LEGYPAGGSLPYYSIQTA+KQ WLHSYFH W A+ +GRSNAMPHIKTYMR SPDF+++AWF				
Sbjct 451	LEGYPAGGSLPYYSIQTAEKQNWLHSYFHKWSAETSGRSNAMPHIKTYMRSPDFSKIAWF	510			
Query 519	LVTSANLSKAAWGALEKNNTQIMVRSYELGVLYLPSAFNMSTFPVEKNVFPACSSSIG-F	577			
	LVTSANLSKAAWGALEKN TQ+M+RSYELGVL+LPSAF + +F V++ F + F				
Sbjct 511	LVTSANLSKAAWGALEKNGTQLMIRSYELGVFLPSAFGLDSFKVKQKFFAGSQEPMATF	570			
Query 578	PVPFDLPPQRYSSKDRPWIWNIPYQAPDTHGNVWVPS	615			
	PVP+DLPP+ Y SKDRPWIWNIPY +APDTHGN+WVPS				
Sbjct 571	PVPYDLPELYGSKDRPWIWNIPYVKAPDTHGNMWVPS	608			

b. Alignment of the N-terminal regulatory and protein-protein binding domain (amino acids 1-148 in the human sequence)

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

	Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
	41.6 bits(96)	4e-10	Compositional matrix adjust.	40/135(30%)	62/135(45%)	30/135(22%)
Query	1					
Sbjct	1					
Query	61					
Sbjct	48					
Query	118					
Sbjct	96					

Appendix 6.4 Protein-Protein Blast Sequence Alignment of the ATR zebrafish and human sequences

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
3469 bits(8995)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	1729/2665(65%)	2077/2665(77%)	54/2665(2%)
Query 3		EHGLELASMIPALRELGSATPEEYNTVVQKPRQILCQFIDRILTDVNVVAVELVKKTDSQ			62
Sbjct 2		E GLE+++MIPAL+EL SA+ EYN VQKPRQILCQFIDRILTDV+VVA+EL KK+ S+ EQGLEMSAMIPALQELASASSVEYNQAVQKPRQILCQFIDRILTDVDVVALELCKKSSSE			61
Query 63		PTSVMLLDFIQHIMKSSPLMFVNVS--GSH--EAKGSCIEFSNWIITRLLRIAATPSCHL			118
Sbjct 62		P VMLLDF+QHI+KSS LMF+N + H ++ SC +F+ WII RLLRIAA P C PACVMLLDFVQHIKSSSLMFINPACLSDHFKNSENSCTDFTKWIINRLLRIAACEPED			121
Query 119		LHKKICEVICSLFLFKSKSPAIFGVLTKELLQLFEDLVYLHRRNVMGH-AVEWPVMSR			177
Sbjct 122		LH KI VICSLL LF++K+P +F + + EL+ L +DLV+ +N+M + +WPVV+ R LHMKISSVICSLHLFRAPVVFSLFSTELICLIQDLVH---KNLMTRPSPQWPVVVER			178
Query 178		FLSQLDEHMGYLQSAPLQLMSMQNLEFIEVTLLMVLTRIIAIVFFRRQELLLWQIGCVLL			237
Sbjct 179		F + E YL LQL S+ + + + T L VLT +I +FF R+ ++W C++L FSIKSGESAVYLTPTILQLSSLSSTQALLATSLRVLTDVIQGLFFPREVGIWDSTCLML			238
Query 238		EYGSPKIKSLAISFLTELFQLGGLPAQPASTFFSSFLELLKHLVEMDTDQLKLYEPLSK			297
Sbjct 239		GSPK+K++++ LT + LGG P + FFS+FL +L L D +L ++ + SNGSPKLVKAVSMVLLTRIVTLGGFPEDHSQPFSAFLHVLDSLPAFDESELGVFSREFQQ			298
Query 298		LIKTLFPFEAEAYRNIEPVYLNMLLEKLCVMFEDGVMRLKSDLLKAALCHLLQYFLKFV			357
Sbjct 299		L + +F E A+ E V+LNML+E+L + G L LK +KA LC + + L FV LSRCIFQHEEGAHSRFRERVHLNMLMERLEKLVVIGALEHLKVKEVKATLCEVFCFILGFV			358
Query 358		PAGYESALQVRKVYVRNICKALLDVLGIEVDAEYLL-GPLYAALKMESMEIEEIQCQTQ			416
Sbjct 359		P GYE ALQ+RK V ICKAL+ +G + E L G LYAALK +++ ++++Q PPGYECALQIRKERVAAICKALIKTIGTKDQHEQSLEGYLYAALKTDAIAAMQDVQ----			414
Query 417		QENLSSNSDGISPK-----RRRLSSSLNPSKRAPKQTEEIKHVDNMNQSILWSALKQK			469
Sbjct 415		+S SD P+ +R + S L R+ +T+ ++ VDM +S +W+A+ + ----ASVSDPADPRMYEELPAKRPNLSLPTQLRSRDKTQPMQ-VDMKSRSEVWAAVDCR			469
Query 470		AESLQISLEYSGLKNPVIEMLEGIAVVLQLTALCTVHCSHQNMNCRFTKDCQHKSKKKPS			529
Sbjct 470		E L + + + ++G+AV+ L ALC+ H + K Q K S LEELLTQMRNHTVSQ-CVSAVQGLAVIFHLAALCSEH-----SLKGPQRGEKSSSES			519
Query 530		VVIT---WMSLDFYTKVLKSCRSL-ESVQKLDLEATIDKVVKIYDALIYMQVNSSFEDH			585
Sbjct 520		V+ W+ +V++SCR++L + + LE ++ +V+I DA++Y+ NS + SVVAQLIWLKPQMLAQVVESCRVTLANNYNEEHL EHLVEGIVRI L DAVLYLSTNSES DKS			579
Query 586		ILEDLCGMLSPLWIYSHSDDGCLKLTTFANLLTSCRISDSYSPQAQSRVFLTLFPR			645
Sbjct 580		++C +LS+PW+ HS + +F A+L+ LS +++ Y+ Q ++ CVFLL + FHRNICALLSVPWVLEHSSQS VYQTASFPA SLIALS QKLAPVYNAQTRAHCVFLLAPLSK			639
Query 646		RIFLEWRTAVYNWALQSSHEVIRASCVSGFFILLQQQN--SCNRVPKILIDKVKDDSDIV			703
Sbjct 640		+ +WR++VY WALQS E RAS V GF ILL Q S + + + L+++++D S V SVCGDWRSSVYRWALQSKSEAERASAVRGFPILLHQLGVKSNSLIHEALLNRLQDSSTEV			699
Query 704		KKEFASILGQLVCTLHGMFYLTSSLTEPFSEHGVDLFCRNLKATSQHECSSQLKASVC			763
Sbjct 700		K E A I GQL C L +S L P L C L + H +S + S+ KTELAGITGQLACCLSE----SSQLQFPQETMPHQLLCSGLSISDFHSSQTSSIGTSIL			755
Query 764		KPFLFLLKKKIPSPVKLAFIDNLHHLCKHLDFREDETVDKAVLGTLLNLMEDPKDVRVA			823
Sbjct 756		PFL LLK VK AFI N+ HL KH+D + D KA++ L+NL+EDPD++VR+ TPFLQLLKPVEDMKVKQAFIKNIRHLFKHVDLGNTDPDTKALVNALVNLIEDPDQEVRI M			815
Query 824		FSGNIKHILESLSDEDFIKELFVLRMKEAYTHAQISRNNELKDTLILTTGDIGRAAKGD			883
		F NIK++LE + +GF+KEL V R+KEAYT+A+ SRNNELK+TLILTTG+IGRAA+G+			

Sbjct	816	FGQNIKNLLEFWNG-NGFLKELLVSRLEKAYTNAKTSRNNELKNTLILTTGEIGRAAEGN	874
Query	884	LVPFALLHLLHCLLSKASVSGAAYTEIRALVAAKSVKLQSFSSQYKPKICQFLVESLHS	943
Sbjct	875	LVFALLRLLHCLLSKSNPVSVAAYTEIQALATCRDLKLSFFSQYRNPICQFLVESLHS	934
Query	944	SQMTALPNTPCQNADVRKQDVAHQREMANLTLSEIANVDFPDLNRFRTLQVLLPDLA	1003
Sbjct	935	+TAL TP Q+++ +++ AHQRE+AL+ LS +A+VFDFPDLNRF RTLQVLLP LA	994
Query	1004	AKASPAASALIRTLGKQLNVNRREILINNFKYIFSHLVCSCSKDELERALHYLKNETEIE	1063
Sbjct	995	AKASP ASALIRT+ KQLNVNRRE+LINNFKYIFSHLVCSCSK+ELERA HYLKNETEIE	1054
Query	1064	LGSLLRQDFQGLHNEALLRIGEHYQVFNGLSILASFASDDPYQGPRDIISPELMADYL	1123
Sbjct	1055	LGSLLRQDFQGLHNEALLR+GEHYQVFNGL+ILASFASDDPYQGPR+I +P MADYL	1114
Query	1124	QPKLLGILAFFNMQLLSSSVG-IEDKKMALNSLSMLKLMGPKHVSSVRVKMMTTLRTGL	1182
Sbjct	1115	QPKLLGILAFFNMQLLSSS G E KKMALNSLSMLKLMGPKH+SSVRVKMMTTLRTGL	1174
Query	1183	RFKDDFPELCCRAWDCFVRCLDHACLGLSHVIVALLPLIHIQPKETAIFHYLIENR	1242
Sbjct	1175	R+KDDFPELCCR WDCFVRCLD + LG LLSHVIVALLPLI IQPKETA I HYLI+ENR	1234
Query	1243	DAVQDFLHEIYFLPDHPELKKIKAVLQEYRKETSESTDQLTTLQLSMKAIQHENVVRIH	1302
Sbjct	1235	+VQDFLHEIYFLPDHPELK I VLQ+YRK+TS+STD+Q LQLSM+AIQHENVVRIH	1294
Query	1303	ALTSLKETLYKNQEKLKIKYATDSETVEPIISQLVTVLLKGCQDANSQARLLCGECLGELG	1362
Sbjct	1295	ALTSLKE +YKNQ+ L+K+ DSE VEP+ISQLVTVLL+GCQD N++ARLLCGECLGELG	1354
Query	1363	AIDPGRDLDFSTTETQGKDFTFVTGVEDSSFAYGLLMELTRAYLAYADNSRAQDSAAAYIQ	1422
Sbjct	1355	AIDPGRLD S +TQG TFV+G++D +FAY LL ELTRA+LAYAD+ RAQD+AAYA+Q	1414
Query	1423	ELLSIYDCREMETNGPGHQLWRRFPEHVREILEPHLNTRYKSSQKSTDWVGKPIYLSK	1482
Sbjct	1415	ELLS+++CRE T+ G +LWRRFPE V+EILEPHLNTRYKSSQK +WS +KKPIYLS	1474
Query	1483	LGSNFAEWSASWAGYLITKVRHDLASKIFTCCSIMMKHDFKVTIYLLPHILVYVLLGCNQ	1542
Sbjct	1475	GS F++WSA+WAGYLI+KVRH+LA K+F CCS ++KHD+KVTIYLLPHILVYVLLGC Q	1534
Query	1543	EDQQEVYAEIMAVLKHDDQHTINTQDIASDLQLSTQTVFSMLDHLTQWARHKFQALKAE	1602
Sbjct	1535	E+Q+EV EIMAVLK D + Q+ AS L QLSTQTVFSMLDHLTQW+RHK Q L	1594
Query	1603	KCPHSKSNRNKVDMSVSTVDYEDYQSVTRFLDLIPQDTLAVASFRSKAYTRAVMHFESFI	1662
Sbjct	1595	K K+ R + + + V +YQSV FL+ IPQD LA ASFRS+AYTRAVMHFESFI	1653
Query	1663	TEKKQNIQEHLGFLQKLYAAMHEPDGAVGSAIRKAEPSSLKEQILEHESLGLLRDATACY	1722
Sbjct	1654	EKKQNIQ+HL FLQ LYAAMHEPDGV GV+A+RK EPSL+EQILEHES+GLLR++TACY	1713
Query	1723	DRAIQLEPDQIIHYHGVVKSMLGLGQLSTVITQVNGVHANRSEWDELNTYRVEAAWKLS	1782
Sbjct	1714	DRAIQLEPDQ+ HYHGV+ SMLGLGQLSTVITQVNGV A+R W +LN YRVEAAWKLS	1773
Query	1783	QWDLVENYLAADGKSTTWSVRLGQLLLSAKKRDITAFYDSLKLVRAEQIVPLSAASFERG	1842
Sbjct	1774	+WDLVE+YLA+D KS+TW VRLGQ+LL+AKK+D AFY+ LK+ R EQ+VPLSAASFE G	1833

Query	1843	SYQRGYEYIVRLHMLCELEHSIKPLFQHS--PGDSSQ-EDSLNWWARLEMTQNSYRAKEP	1899
		+YQRGYEYIVRLHMLCELEH L + S G S + E LNW A L MTQNS+RAKEP	
Sbjct	1834	TYQRGYEYIVRLHMLCELEHVFTELQKESSEAGRSKPEPKNWDAHLLMTQNSFRAKEP	1893
Query	1900	ILALRRALLSLNKRPDYNEMVGECWLQSARVARKAGHHQTAYNALLNAGESRLAELVVER	1959
		+LALRRALLSL+K E VGECWLQSARVAR+AGHHQTA+NALLNA S L+EL++E+	
Sbjct	1894	VLALRRALLSLSKGSSCEEQVGECWLQSARVARRAGHHQTAFNALLNAENSHLSELFIEK	1953
Query	1960	AKWLWSKGDVHQALIVLQKGVELCFPENETPPEGKNMLIHGRAMLLVGRFMEETANFESN	2019
		AKWLWSKGDVHQALIVLQKGV+ CFP+++T + K + + G AMLLVGR+MEETANFESN	
Sbjct	1954	AKWLWSKGDVHQALIVLQKGVQCCFPDDQTLTDPKRIQVKGNAMLVGRYMEETANFESN	2013
Query	2020	AIMKKYKDVTAACPEWEDGHFYLAKEYYDKLMPMVTDNKMEKQGDILIRYIVLHFGRSLQYG	2079
		AIMK YKDV T LPEWEDG+FYLAKEYYDK+MPMVTDNK+E+QG+LIRYIV +FG++LQ+G	
Sbjct	2014	AIMKTYKDVTTLLPEWEDGNFYLAKEYYDKVMPMVTDNKLERQGNLIRYIVTYFGKALQFG	2073
Query	2080	NQFIYQSMRMLTLWLDYGTAKAYEWEKAGRSRDRVQMRNDLGKINKVITEHTNYLAPYQFL	2139
		NQ+IYQ+MPRMLTLWLD+G K YE+EKAGRSRDRVQMR +L KIN VI++HT+ L+PYQFL	
Sbjct	2074	NQYIYQAMPRLTLWLDGAKVYEFEKAGRSRDRVQMRTELTKINSVISDHTSNLSPYQFL	2133
Query	2140	TAFSQLISRICHSDEVFVLM EI IAKVFLAYPQQAMWMMTAVSKSSYPMRVNRCKEILN	2199
		TAFSQLISRICHS +EVF VLMEI+AKVFLAYPQQAMWMMTAVSKSSYP R+NRCKEIL	
Sbjct	2134	TAFSQLISRICHSNEVFVLM EI IAKVFLAYPQQAMWMMTAVSKSSYPTRMNRCKEILK	2193
Query	2200	KAIHMKKSLEKFGDATRLTDKLELNCNPKVDGSSSTLSMSTHFKMLKLVVEEATFSEIL	2259
		KAI + S KF+GDA RLTDKLEL NKPVDG+SSSTLSMS HFKMLKLVVEE TFS+IL	
Sbjct	2194	KAISLNSDFMKFIGDANRLTDKLELGNKPKVDGNSSTLSMSVHFKMLKLVVEEPTFSQIL	2253
Query	2260	IPLQSVMIPTLPSILGTHANHASHEPFGHWAYIAGFDDMVEILASLQPKKISLKGSDG	2319
		IPLQSV+IPTLPS G + H+ FPGHW Y++GFDD VEILASLQPKKISLKGSDG	
Sbjct	2254	IPLQSVLIPTLPSTGGANPK---HDAFPGHWVYLSGFDDTVEILASLQPKKISLKGSDG	2310
Query	2320	KFYIMMCKPKDDLKDCRLMEFNLINKLRKDAESRRRELHIRTYAVIPLNDECGIIEW	2379
		KFY MMCKPKDDLKDCRLMEFN LINK LRKDAESRRR+L IRTYAVIPLN+ECGIIEW	
Sbjct	2311	KFYTMCKPKDDLKDCRLMEFNCLINKSLRKDAESRRRDLIRTYAVIPLNEECGIIEW	2370
Query	2380	VNNTAGLRPILTKLYKEKGVYMTGKELRQCMLPKSAALSEKLVFREFLLPRHPPHFHEW	2439
		VN TAGLR ILTKLYKEKG+Y++G EL++ +LPK+A EKLK+ ++ L RHPP+FHFW	
Sbjct	2371	VNKTAGLRHILTKLYKEKGIYVSGTELKLLPKTAPFQEKLLKHKDVLRCARHPPVFHEW	2430
Query	2440	FLRTFPDPTSWYSSRSAYCRSTAVMSMVG IYLGLGDRHGENILFDSLTGECVHVDNFCLF	2499
		FLRTFPDPTSWY+SRSAYCRSTAVMSMVG IYLGLGDRHGENILFDS TGECVHVDNFCLF	
Sbjct	2431	FLRTFPDPTSWYNSRSAYCRSTAVMSMVG IYLGLGDRHGENILFDSFTGECVHVDNFCLF	2490
Query	2500	NKGETFEVPEIVPFRLTNMMVNGMGPMTGTEGLFRACEVTMRMRDQREPLMSVLKTFLLH	2559
		NKGETF+VPE+VPFRLT NMV+ MGPMGTGTEGLFR+ACEV +RLMRDQREPLMSVLKTFLLH	
Sbjct	2491	NKGETFDVPEVVPFRLTQNMVHAMGPMGTGTEGLFRQACEVILRLMRDQREPLMSVLKTFLLH	2550
Query	2560	DPLVEWSKPVKGHSKAPLNETGEVNEKAKTHVLDIEQRLQGVIKTRNRVTGLPLSIEGH	2619
		DPLVEWSKPVKG SK +NE+GE++NEKAKTHVLDIEQRLQGVIK RN+V GLPLSIEGH	
Sbjct	2551	DPLVEWSKPVKGFSTQVNESGEILNEKAKTHVLDIEQRLQGVIKNRNKVMGLPLSIEGH	2610
Query	2620	VHYLIQEATDENLLCQMYLWGPYM 2644	
		VHYLIQEATD+NLLC MYLW PY+	
Sbjct	2611	VHYLIQEATDDNLLCMMYLWGPYL 2635	

Appendix 6.5 Protein-Protein Blast Sequence Alignment of the DNA-PKcs zebrafish and human sequences

Query- Zebrafish Subject-Human

Score	Expect	Method	Identities	Positives	Gaps
4871 bits(12635)	0.0	Compositional matrix adjust.	2409/4157(58%)	3127/4157(75%)	80/4157(1%)
Query 6	AGVRCSLRLQETLSAADRCGAALAGHQLRIGLGQECVLS SSPAVLALQTSLVFSRDFGL	65			
	G++ LL+L +L A+ H +I LGQEC+++ + L LQTSL+F+++ GL				
Sbjct 9	GGIQGYLLKLHSSLEDTVSTNVAIVCHDIIGDLGQECMITKNENELVLQTSLLFAKEEGL	68			
Query 66	LVFVRKSLNSIEF-----RECREEILKFLCIFLEKMGQKI----APYSVEIKNTCTS	113			
	L F+R+SL++ + RE R EI+ FL FL++M + Y+VE+K+TC				
Sbjct 69	LSFLRRSLSTEKLGTTGVEILRETRVEIMNFLGAF LQRMSATVRGWEKNYAVELKDCIV	128			
Query 114	VYTKDRAACKIPALDLLIKLLQTFRSSRLMDEFKIGELFSKFY GELALKKKIPDVTLEK	173			
	VYTKD++AKC+ PALDLLIK+L + S + +IG++F+KFGEL K KIPDTVL				
Sbjct 129	VYTKDKSAKCRNPALDLLIKILYLT KDSSITQNL RIGDMFNKFGELCQKHKIPDVLGC	188			
Query 174	VYELLG LLGEVHPSEM INNAENLFR AFLGELKTQMTSAVREP KLPVLAGCLKGLSLLCN	233			
	+YELLG+LGEVHPSEM+NN++ L++A+LGELK QMTS +EPKLPV+AGCLKG+++L+ N				
Sbjct 189	IYELLGVLGEVHPSEM VNNSDKLYKAYLGELKGQMTSTTKEP KLPVAVAGCLKGIAALMVN	248			
Query 234	FTKSMEEDPQTSREIFNFVLKAI R P QIDLKRYAVPSAGLRLFALHASQFSTCLLDNYVSL	293			
	FTKS+EEDP S+EIF++ LKAI PQ D+KRYAV AGL+LFA H+SQF +CL+D+Y+S+				
Sbjct 249	FTKSVEEDPAASKEIFDYALKAI SPQTDIKRYAVIFAGLKLFAKHSSQFGSCLMDHYISI	308			
Query 294	FEVLLKWAHTNVELKKAALSAL ESFLKQVSNMVAKNAEMHKNLQYFMEQFYGIIRNVD	353			
	F+V+ K C H N ELKK++ +ALESFLKQV+ +VA+N E+HK+KL++FM++F IIR +D				
Sbjct 309	FDVMSKHCGHINAELKSSYTALESFLKQVATLVAENIELHKS LKFFMQKFC AIIRTMD	368			
Query 354	SNNKELSI AIRGYGLFAGPCKVINAKDVDFMYVELIQ RCKQMFLTQTDGDDRVYQMP SF	413			
	S N K E L S I A I R G Y G L F A P C K V + + D V D M Y E L I Q R C K Q M + L T + + D D D V Y Q + P S F				
Sbjct 369	STNKELSI AIRGYGLFAAPCKV VCPQVDV LMYELIQ RCKQMYL TESDRDDNVYQLPSF	428			
Query 414	LQSVASVLLYLDTVPEVYTPVLEHLVVMQIDSF P QYSPKMLVCCRAIVKVF LALAAKGP	473			
	L S+ASVL++LD +PEVYTPVLE L+V+Q+DSFPQYS +MQ CR+IVKVF+A+A +GP				
Sbjct 429	LDSIASVVLHDRIPEVYTPVLERLLV VQMDSF P QY S Q R M Q H A T C R S I V K V F V A M A V R G P	488			
Query 474	VL RNCISTV V H Q G L I R I C S K P V L P --K G P E S E D H R A S G E V R T G K W K V P T Y K D Y V D L F	531			
	VL + S+V V H Q G L I R + C S K P V + +G S S V R + G K W K V P + K D Y + + L F				
Sbjct 489	VLWSFTSSV V H Q G L I R V C S K P V L Q S D E R G V S S G V S Q S E D S T L V R S G K W K V P S S K D Y L E L F	548			
Query 532	RHL L S S D Q M M D S I L A D E A F F S V N S S S E S L N H L L Y D E F V K S V L K I V E K L D L T L E I Q T V G E Q	591			
	+ LL + + D+ D A + N + LN LYD V+SV+KIVEKLDL+++ + ++				
Sbjct 549	KGLLD CENL K D T G F V D G A P A A K N Y N L R D L N R H L Y D A L V Q S V M K I V E K L D L S V Q K V S A A D E	608			
Query 592	ENGDEAPGVMIPTSDPAANLHPAKPKDFSAFINLVEFCREILPEKQAEFFEPWVYSFSY	651			
	D + G+ + +SDP ANL P KPKDF AFINLV+FC E+LP + E+F W++ +				
Sbjct 609	VQSDASAGI - -VLSSDPTANLMPNPKPKDFIAFINLVDFCSELLPSRNPEYFAQWMHPLCH	666			
Query 652	ELILQSTR L P L I S G F Y K L L S I T V R N A K K I K Y F E G V S --PKSLKHSPEDPEKYSCFALFVK	709			
	ELILQS R PL+SGFYKLLS+++ AKK +YF+ V PK + S + +CF+L K				
Sbjct 667	ELILQSIRFPLVSGFYKLLSLSMGI AKKTQYFQDVKQCPKQVGGSTMEN-- -ACFSLLAK	723			
Query 710	FGKEVAVKMKQYKDELLASCLTFLLSLPHNIIELDV RAYVPALQMAFKLGLSYTPLAEVG	769			
	FGKEV V+MKQYKDELLA+CL F+LSL ++ LD++AY+PALQ A +LGLS+ PLA				
Sbjct 724	FGKEVCVRMKQYKDELLAACLMFILSLHPGMVALDIKAYIPALQAALRLGLSHAPLATAA	783			
Query 770	LNAL E E W S I Y I D R H V M Q P Y Y K D I L P C L D G Y L K T S A L S D E T K N N W E V S A L S R A A Q K G F N K V	829			
	L+ALE WS +I ++QP+Y DILP LDGYLKT++ S++ +N EV+ +S + KG+ +V				
Sbjct 784	LDAL E S W S S F I P A A I L Q P H Y T D I L P H L D G Y L K T T S S S E K D D S N M E V T F V S T G S S K G Y G V	843			

Query	830	VLKHLKKTKNLSSNEAISLEEIRIRVVQMLGSLGGQINKNLLTVTSSDEMMSYVAWDRE	889
Sbjct	844	+L+ LKK+K S + + +R RVV++LG LGGQ+N++L+T S+++MMK +VAWD E LLRLLKSKRFSLGDSPIAAVRRRVRLGLHGGQLNRSLVTAESAEDMMKRFVAWDCE	903
Query	890	KRLSFAVPFREMMPVIFLDVFLPRVTEALASDRQTKVAACELLHSMVMFMLGKATQMP	949
Sbjct	904	KRLSFAVPF++MKPVI+LD FLPRVTEAL++SDRQTKVAACELLHS+V++M+GK QM KRLSFAVPFKDKMPVIYLDLFLPRVTEALSSSDRQTKVAACELLHSLVIYVMVGKAQMT	963
Query	950	EGGQGAPPMYQLYKRTFPVLLRLACDQVTRQLYEPLVMQLIHWFNTNNKFFESQDTVAL	1009
Sbjct	964	E + APPMY L+++ FPVLLRLACDQVTRQL+EPLVMQLIHWFNTNN+KFESQDTVA+ EDDKSAPPMYNLHRKVFPVLLRLACDQVTRQLFEPLVMQLIHWFNTNRKFESQDTVAV	1023
Query	1010	LEAILDGIIVDPVDSTLRDFGRCIREFLKWSIKQITPQQQEKSPVNTKSLFKRLYSALH	1069
Sbjct	1024	LEAILDGIIVDP+DSTLRDF G CI+EF+KWSIKQ TP+QQEKSP N KSLFKR+YSLALH LEAILDGIIVDPLDSTLRDFSGTCIQEFVKSQITTPKQEKSPANMKSFLKRIYSALH	1083
Query	1070	PNAFKRLGASLAFNNIYREFREEESLVEQFVFEALVIYMESLALAHAEKSLGTIQCCD	1129
Sbjct	1084	P+ FKRLGA+LAFN++YR+FREE SLVEQFVFE LV+++ESLALAH DEKS+GT+QQCC PSVFKRLGAALAFNSMYRQFREESSLVEQFVFEVLVVFVESLALAHFDEKSVGTVQQCCS	1143
Query	1130	AIDLHLCRIIEKKHVS LNKAKRRRLPRGFPPSASLCLLDLVKWL LAHCGRPQTECRHKSIE	1189
Sbjct	1144	++DHL RII+ K SLN KRR+PRGFP S+CL ++V WLL CGRPQTECRHKS+E SLDHLKRIIKHADSLNINSKRRIPRGFPADQSVCLSNVVLWLLTQCGRPQTECRHKSME	1203
Query	1190	LFYKFVPLLPGNRSPNLWLKDVLEEGVSFLINTFEGGGCGQPSGILAQPTLLYLGRPFS	1249
Sbjct	1204	LF++FVPLLPGN SP +WL + LK+ G FLI+ EGG G+L+QPTL + PFS LFFEFEVPLLPGNSSPAMWLDEQLKQKRGPGFLISCLEGG-----GLLSQPTLREIEAPFS	1257
Query	1250	LQATLCWLDLLLAALCYNTFIGERTV GALQVLGTEAQSSLLKAVAFFLESIAMHDIIAA	1309
Sbjct	1258	++ TL W+DLLLLAAL+CYNTF R + ++LGT +SS L AV FFL ++M DI AA IRGTLQWMDLLLAALDCYNTFTNLRCLQLQRILGTCEKSSFLPAVHFFLTELSDMQDIAA	1317
Query	1310	EKCFGTGAAG-NRTSPQEGERYNYSKCTVVVRIMEFTTLLNTSPEG-WKLLKKDLCNTH	1367
Sbjct	1318	CF G AG + SP+E E+YNYSKC+++VR++EF+T +L P+ WKL++KD+ N+ RACFRLGNAGQSHFSPRETEQYNYSKCSIIVRMLEFSTMVLQKCPQDLWKLMEKDFVNSS	1377
Query	1368	LMRVLVQTLCEPASIGFNIGDVQVMAHLPDVCVNLKALKMSPYKDILETHLREKITAQS	1427
Sbjct	1378	L ++V +CEP+SIGFN+ D++VM HLP+VC L+KAL +PY+ LE+ +R +IT QS LFTLVVLAVCEPSSIGFNMADEVMTHLPEVCFPLLKALASAPYRQLESCIRMRITKQS	1437
Query	1428	IEELCAVNLYGPDQVDRSRLAAVVSACKQLHRAGLLHNILPSQSTDHHSVGTLELSLV	1487
Sbjct	1438	+EELCA++LY D + + +SAC+QLH++GLL+++L SQ S+G++LL+ V VEELCAIDL YETDTRNSHASMNLLSACRQLHQSGLLNSVLHSQDASYGCSLGSKLLTSV	1497
Query	1488	YKGIAPGDERQCLPSLDLSCQLASGLELAFAGGLCERLVSLLLNPAVLSTASLGSSQ	1547
Sbjct	1498	YK IAPG +R+ LPS+D+ ++LA L++L+F G E+ V LLLN LS GS YKSIAPGTDRKSLPSMDVGSRK LADRLVQLSFCLGDQSEQTVGLLLNTITLSVPLSGSLN	1557
Query	1548	GSVIHFSHGEYFYSLFSETINTELLKNLDLAVLELMQSSVDNTKMVSAVLNGLMDQSFRE	1607
Sbjct	1558	+ FSHGEYFYSLF ++NTELL+++D +V L+ S+ N MVS +LNGMLD SFRE PHFLSFSHGEYFYSLFQTSLNTELLRSVDRSVPLLLSSANQNPSMVSLLNGLMDHSFRE	1617
Query	1608	RANQKHQGLKLATTILQHWWKCDSSWAKDSPL---ETKMAVLALLAKILQIDSSVSFNNTS	1664
Sbjct	1618	R+ +K QG +LA +L+ W WW D P E+K +VL+LLAK+LQIDSSV NTS RSVRKSQGSQLAEQVLKGDWLLRPWW--DGPAATPEKTSVLSLLAKVLQIDSSVCSNNTS	1675
Query	1665	HGSFPEVFTTYISLLADTKLDLHLKQAVTLLPFFTSLTGGSLLEELRRVLEQLIVAHFPM	1724
Sbjct	1676	H +F VFTT+ +LL D + L+LK QA+ +LPFFT+L LEELRR LE L+ HFPM HPAFNAVFTTFTALLTDVSMPLNLKSQLIMLPFFTALPSMPEELRRRAESLVATHFPM	1735
Query	1725	QSREFPPTPRFNYYVDCMKKFLDALELSQSPMLLELMTEVLCREQQHVMEELFQSSFRR	1784
Sbjct	1736	QS EFP G+ + NNY+DC++KFL+AL+LSQSP+LL+LM VLCR+++H+MEELFQ+ F++ QSDEFPRGSLQCNNYMD CIRKFLEALQLSQSPLLLKLMARVLCRDKKHIMEELFQACFQK	1795
Query	1785	IARRGSCVTQVGLLESVYEMFRKDDPRLSFTRQSFVDRSLLTLLWHCSLDALREFFSTIV	1844

Sbjct	1796	IA + QV LL S Y+ F+ + +F +DR LL L HCS AL +FF + + IAHQSYLGKQVLLSSTYQSFQAKEVPSNFMLMGLIDRVLLPLASHCSPQALSQFFISNI	1855
Query	1845	VDAIDVLKSRFTKLNSTFDQTITKMGYYKILDMYSRLPKDDVHAKESKINQVFGSC	1904
Sbjct	1856	D + L++RFTK ES F++QI K+G K+L+V+YSRLPK++V++K S INQ F G+ ADIMTTLQTRFTKSVESVFESQIMMKIGCCKLLEVLVYRLPKEEVYKNSAINQAFCGTG	1915
Query	1905	ITEGNETKTLIKLCYDAFTENMAGENQLLERRRLYHCAAYNCAISVICCVFNELKFYQG	1964
Sbjct	1916	EGNEL+K L+K C++AFTENM GE LLE RR +HCAAYNCAI++I C FNE KFYQG CAEGNELSKNLLKSCFEAFTENMTGEMVLELRRQFHCAAYNCAIALISCSFNETKFYQG	1975
Query	1965	FLFSEKPEKNLLIFENLIDLKRRYFPVEVEVPMERKKKYIEIRKEAREAANGSDSGPSY	2024
Sbjct	1976	FLF+EKP+KN IF+NLID +R YNFP+E++VP+ERKKKY+ IRKE NGD+ P Y FLFTEKPKNQFIFDNLIDSQRVYNFPIEIDVPIERKKKYVMIRKEV-SGENGDA--PVY	2032
Query	2025	MSSLSYLADSTLSEEMSQDFSTGVQSYSSSQDPRPATGRFRREQRDPTVHDDVLELE	2084
Sbjct	2033	+SS SY+ADS+LSEEMSQDFSTGVQS+SY+SQ+P + R RE+++ D+ +ELE LSSQSYMADSSLSEEMSQDFSTGVQSFYNSQNPQSGVSSSRMRERKEVLSQDETVELE	2092
Query	2085	MDELNRHECMAPLTALVKHMHRS LGPPQGEEDSVPRDLPWMMKFLHGKLGNPVPLNIRL	2144
Sbjct	2093	MDELN+HECMA +TAL++HM R+ P+ EE P DLP WMMKFL GKL NP PLNIRL MDELNQHECMANMTALLRHMQRNNITPKVEEGVRPSDLPWMMKFLQGKLDNPSTPLNIRL	2152
Query	2145	FLAKLVINTEEVFRPYAKHWLSPLLQLAASENNGGEGIHVMVEIVATILSWTGLATPTG	2204
Sbjct	2153	F+AKL+INTEE+FRPYAKHWL PL+QL S +NGGEGIH+MVV+IV T+LSW +A+P G FIAKLIINTEEIFRPYAKHWLGPLMQLVSSSNGGEGIHFMVVDIVVTVLSWASVASPKG	2212
Query	2205	VPKDEVLANRLLNFLMKHVHPKRAVFRHNLEIIKTLVECWKDCLSIPIYRIFEFKSGKD	2264
Sbjct	2213	+DEVL NRLL FL K+ FH KRAVFRHNLEII+T+VECWKDCL+IPY LI+E+F+G D NTRDEVLVNRLLGFLFKNCFHSKRAVFRHNLEIIRTVECWKDCLTIPYDLIYERFAGTD	2272
Query	2265	PNSKDNSVGIQLLGIVMANDLPPYPDQCGIQSSEYFQALVNNMSFVRYKEVYAAAAEVLG	2324
Sbjct	2273	PNSKDNSVGIQLLGIVMAN+LPPYD CGI+ YFQ+L NN+SF+RYKEVY+AAAEV+G PNSKDNSVGIQLLGIVMANNLPPYDAACGIEHDRYFQSLANNLSFIRYKEVYSAAAEVIG	2332
Query	2325	LILRYVMERKNILEESLCEL -VAKQLKQHONTMEDKFIVCLNKVTKSFPPLADRFMNAV	2383
Sbjct	2333	LIL Y+ ER+N +E +L + V K + + ++DKFIVCL+KV+K FPPL DRF+N VF LILNYMTERENQIEGTLFNITVTKMLDLRKKKEVDDKFIVCLSKVSKHFPPLVDRFINPVF	2392
Query	2384	FLLPKFHGVLKTLCLLEVVLCRVEGMTELYFQLKSKDFVQVMRHRDDEQKVCCLDIYKMM	2443
Sbjct	2393	+LLPK HG+LKT CLE VL R + + E++ LK+K Q+M H+D+ RQ+VCLDII+K++ YLLPKLHGMLKTHCLECVLSRADVIPEIFLHLKTKGLSQIMSHKDEGRQRVCLDIIHKIL	2452
Query	2444	PKLKPVELRELLNPVVEFVSHPSTTCREQMYNILMWHIDNYRDPESDNDNSQEIFKLAK	2503
Sbjct	2453	LKP EL+E+L V F SHPS CRE+MY+ILMWI DNY D ES D+ S E+ +A+ ACLKPEELKEILGAVTAFASHPSPVCRERMYDILMWIQDNYSDSESREDSTSVEVLSVAR	2512
Query	2504	DVLIQGLIDENPGLQLIIRNFWSHETRLPSNTLDRL -ALNSLYSPKIEVHFLSLATNFL	2562
Sbjct	2513	+ L+QGL DEN GLQL +RNFWSHE+RLP TL+R+L L SLYS +IE FLSLAT+ L ETLLQGLTDENYGLQLYVRNFWSHESRLPPETLERMLVVLKSLYSSRIEEQFLSLATDLL	2572
Query	2563	LEMTSPDYPNPMFEHPLSECFQEYTIIDSDWRFRSTVLTMPFVETQASQGTLQTRTQE	2622
Sbjct	2573	LEMTS SPD+ MFE PLSEC+FQ+YTIDS+WR RSTVLTMPF+ETQA+QG +Q LEMTSHSPDFTRNMFEPFLESECKFQDYTIDSNWRMRSTVLTMPFMETQATQGAEAGSQA	2632
Query	2623	GSLSARWPVAGQIRATQQQHDF - -TLTQTADGRSSFQDWL TGSSTDPLVDH - - -TSPSSDS	2677
Sbjct	2633	+ V GQIRATQ +F TL A RS+++WLTGSS D L D+ + S AT-----VRGQIRATQTSLEFSQTLAPAGRRSAYNWL TGSSTDPLADYSLSSDLSL	2686
Query	2678	LLFAHKRSERLQRAPLKSVGPDFGKKRLGLPGDEVNDKVKGA-AGRTDLLRLRRRFMRDQ	2736
Sbjct	2687	L+F KRSER Q A ++VG FG KRL D+ D++ R D+LRLRRRF++D+ LVFDKKRSERPQ-AAWRAVGAGFGSKRLTATSDDTDSRTAAERERRADILRLRRRF LKDK	2745
Query	2737	EKLSLMYARKGVAEQKREKEIKSELKMKQDAQVLYRSYRHGDLPIQIKHSSLITPLQA	2796
Sbjct	2746	EK S+ +A+K + Q+ E+E +++LK++QDAQV LYRSYR GDLPIQI+ SSSI PLQA EKESIKFAKKEIHSQRTERERRADLIRQDAQVTLYRSYRVGDLPIQIQFSSLIAPLQA	2805

Query	2797	VAQRDPIIAKQLFSSLSFGILKEMDKFKLSEKNITQKLLQDFNRFNLTTFSPFPFVS	2856
Sbjct	2806	+AQRD +AKQLFSSLF+G+L EM++ K+ E +I ++L+Q N FLN + +FPPF+S LAQRDATLAKQLFSSLFAGVLVEMERLKSNETADILKELVQTLNAFLNKSTVYFPPFIS	2865
Query	2857	CIQDISCQHAALLSLDPAAVSAGCLASLQQVPGIRLLEEALLRLLPA--ELPAKRVRGKA	2914
Sbjct	2866	CIQD+S H ALL ++P+ VSA CLASLQQP+GI LLEE+LL A E P KR RGK CIQDMSYHHKALLGVEPSLVSATCLASLQQPMGILLLEESLLHGAGASEEPPLKRARGKR	2925
Query	2915	RLPPDVLRWVELAKLYRSIGEYDVLRGIFTSEIGTKQITQSALLAEARSDYSEAAKQYDE	2974
Sbjct	2926	LPPD RW+ LAKLYRS+G+YDV+RGIF+ +IGTK IT +AL AEA+SDY+EA K Y+E ELPPDTERWIHLAKLYRSLGDYDVRGIFSGKIGTKSITFTALQAEAKSDYAEAVKLYNE	2985
Query	2975	ALNKQDWDGEPTEAEKDFWELASLDCYNHLAEWKSLEYCSTASIDSENPPDLNKIWESEP	3034
Sbjct	2986	ALNK+DW DGEPT EKDFWE+A+L+ YNHL EWKSLEYC+T +ID +P L+++W+E ALNKEDWDDGEPTEAEKDFWEIAALEAYNHLTEWKSLEYCATVNIDDSSPIRLDRMTET	3045
Query	3035	FYQETYLPYMIRSKLKLQLQGEADQSLLTFIDKAMHGELQKAILLEHYSQELSLLYLLQD	3094
Sbjct	3046	FY ETYL YM+RS LK L GE +Q LL+F+D AM E K I+E HYSQELSLLY+LQ+ FYVETYLQYMMRSMKQLQMGETNQDLSFVDAAMKTEEHKIIMETHYSQELSLLYILQE	3105
Query	3095	DVDRAKYIYIQNGIQSFMQNYSSIDVLLHQSRCLKQSVQALTEIQEFISFISKQGNLSSQ	3154
Sbjct	3106	D DRAKY N +Q FMQNYSSID LL++SRLT LQSVQALTEIQ+F+++I+ +++S DYDRAKYANNMCMQVFMQNYSSIDPLNRSRLTVLQSVQALTEIQDFLNYITGDVSVNS-	3164
Query	3155	VPLKRLNLTWTRYPDAKMDPMNIWDDIITNRCFFLSKIEEKLTPEDNSMNVQDGDGP	3214
Sbjct	3165	LK ++ WT+ YPDAK+DPMN+WDDIIT+RCFFL KI ++L PE NSM VD --LKFMIIRRTSHYPDAKLDPMNVWDDIITSRCFFLKDILKRLKSTPE-NSMEVDGAD--	3219
Query	3215	SDRMEVQEQEEDISSLIRSCFKSMKMKMIDSARKQNNFSLAMKLLKELHESKTRDDWL	3274
Sbjct	3220	Q E++ L+++CKF+MK++M DSA QNNF +A KLLKELH+ +K D L+ -----QSGEELGLVVKTKCFNMKLMQADSARKQNNFPVASKLLKELHRHAKIDARLL	3273
Query	3275	SWVQSYCRLSHCRSRSQGCSEQVLTVLKTVSLL-DENNVSSYLSKNILAFRDQNILLGTT	3333
Sbjct	3274	WV S+ R +H R G SE++ +LKTV LL D S LS +L RDQ ILLGTT RWHVSFSRFTHKRIARLGPSEKINALKTVPLKDAERQSEALSARM--RDQRILLGTT	3331
Query	3334	YRIANALSSEPACLAIEEDKARRILELSGSSSESEKVIAGLYQRAFQHLSEAVQAAE	3393
Sbjct	3332	Y ++A A P L + E+K ++IL+LS +SS +V+ GL +A + L A AE YDLMAGAADRSPFALETGEEKVQKILQLSQASS--IAQVVEGLQIQALELLRSAACKAE	3389
Query	3394	EEAQQPSWSCGPAAGVIDAYMTLADFCQQLRKEEENASVIDSAELQAYPALVVEKMLKA	3453
Sbjct	3390	EE Q S G+++AYMT+A+FCD++LR+ E+ I S++LQ+ P VV+ MLKA EEEQSFQQHVNTHGIVEAYMTMANFCDRRLRESEQKEEAI-SSKQLSLPEHVVMMLKA	3448
Query	3454	LKLSNEARLKFPRLLQIERYPEETLSLMTKEISSVPCWQFISWISHMVALLDKQDQAVA	3513
Sbjct	3449	LKL+S EARLKFPRLLQ++E YP ETL LM +E+ SVPCW I WIS M+ALLDK QA A LKLSSEEARLKFPRLLQLVEVYPAETLDMVREVVSVPCWLLIGWISQMMALLDKPQATA	3508
Query	3514	VQHSVEEITDNPQAIYVYPIISSESYFSDTSTGHKNKEFVARIKSKLDQGGVIQDFIN	3573
Sbjct	3509	VQH +EEI + YPQA++YP++ISSE+Y+F++++G +N+EFV +++S LD+GGVIQ F++ VQHVIEEIAECYPQALIYPYMISSENYTFEESASGQRNREFVEKLESLLDKGGVIQGFVD	3568
Query	3574	ALDQLSNPELLFKDWSNDVRAELAKTPVNKKNIEKMYERMYAALGDPKAPGLGAFRRKFI	3633
Sbjct	3569	AL QLSNPE+LFKDW ++V+ +L K ++KK ++ Y M LGD K+P G++RRKFI ALQQLSNPEMLFKDWWDEVKNQLDKPNLDKMKMLQY--MTELLGDAKSPRFGSYRRKFI	3626
Query	3634	QTFGKEFDKHFSGGSKLL-RMKLSDFNDITNMLLLKMNKDSKPPGNLKECSPWMSDFKV	3692
Sbjct	3627	Q F KE +K G GGSKL R K DF + ++ M K PGN+KE SPW+S FK QKFSKEVEKLLGAGGSKLYERRKDKDFLQVDRMVQSMRFGQKEPKNMKEYSPWLSDFKA	3686
Query	3693	EFLRNELEIPGQYDGRGKPLPEYHVRIAGFDERVTVMASLRRPKRIIRGHDEREHPFLV	3752
Sbjct	3687	E L+NELE+PGQYDG+ KPLPEYH +I GFDERV VM S+RRPKRIIRG DER++PFLV ETLKNELEVPQYDGKSKPLPEYHAKITGFDERVKVMTSIRRPKRIIRGDDEPFLV	3746
Query	3753	KGGEDLRQDQRVEQLFQVMNGILAQDSACSQRALQLRTYSVVPMTSRLGLIEWLENTVTL	3812

Sbjct	3747	KGGEDLRQDQR+EQLF VMN IL+QD+ACSQR+L LRTY V+P+TSR+GLIEW+ENT TL KGGEDLRQDQRIEQLFGVMNMILSQDTACSQRSALRTRYQVIPITSRIGLIEWMENTCTL	3806
Query	3813	KDLLLLNTMSQEKAAYLSDPRAPPCEYKDWLTKMSGK-HDVGAYMLMYKGANRTETVTSF	3871
Sbjct	3807	KD L + +++E+ P Y +W++K++GK + Y +YK A R +TV +F KDFLSSRRTQEQTITR----PNEFYDEWISKVAGKVEGIRRYAELYKKAKRVDTVMNF	3862
Query	3872	RKRESKVPADLLKRAFVRMSTSPEAFALRSHFASSHALICISHWILGIGDRHLNFMVA	3931
Sbjct	3863	R+ E VP DLLKRAFVRMST+PEAF+LRSHF+SSHA++CISHWILGIGDRHL+NFM+ RRIEQMVPDDLLKRAFVRMSTTPEAF+LRSHFSSHAVLCISHWILGIGDRHLSNFMIN	3922
Query	3932	METGGVIGIDFGHAFGSATQFLPVPELMPFRLTRQFINLMLPMKETGLMYSIMVHALRAF	3991
Sbjct	3923	ETGG+IGIDFGHAFGSATQFLPVPELMPFRLTRQFINLM P+ E+GL+ S+MVH+LRAF TETGGMIGIDFGHAFGSATQFLPVPELMPFRLTRQFINLMRPLAESGLIQSVMVHSLRAF	3982
Query	3992	RSDPGLLTNTMDVVFVKEPSFDWKNFEQKMLKKGGSWIQEINVAEKNWYPRQKICYAKRKL	4051
Sbjct	3983	R++P LL NTMDVVFVKEPS DWKNFE K LKKG+G+W + +N E NW+P QK+ +A+RKL RAEPDLLLLNTMDVVFVKEPSLDWKNFELKQLKKG+G+W+T+VNTKEINWFPLQKVNFAARRKL	4042
Query	4052	AGANPAVITCDELLLGHEKAPAFRDYVAVARGSKDHNIRAQEPESGLSEETQVKCLMDQA	4111
Sbjct	4043	G NP+VIT +EL LG EK P ++ +AVARG + HNIRA+ + L+ E QV CL+DQA EGTNPSVITSEELCLGFEMPEYKGLLAVARGEQHNIRARLADKDLTVEDQVDCLLDQA	4102
Query	4112	TDPNILGRTWEGWEPWM 4128 TDPNILGR W GWEPW+	
Sbjct	4103	TDPNILGRVWIGWEPWI 4119	

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