

Varying modalities of perinatal exposure to a pesticide cocktail elicit neurological adaptations in mice and zebrafish

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1	Varying modalities of perinatal exposure to a pesticide cocktail
2	elicit neurological adaptations in mouse and zebrafish.
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37 Highlights

- 1) Perinatal pesticides links with long-term behavioral modifications in male mice.
- 2) Behavioral changes are accompanied by electrographic brain slowing *in vivo*.
- 40 3) In zebrafish larvae, pesticide cocktail elicited dose-dependent motor-behavioral
- 41 changes.
- 42 4) In zebrafish larvae, chlorpyriphos is a behavior-modifying pesticide contained in
- 43 the cocktail.
- 5) Non-lethal prenatal pesticide cocktail does not provoke brain malformations.
- 45

46 **Graphical abstract**



54 Abstract

55

Epidemiological indications connect maternal and developmental presence or 56 exposure to pesticides with an increased risk for a spectrum of neurological 57 trajectories. To provide pre-clinical data in support of this hypothesis, we used two 58 distinct experimental models. First, female and male mice were fed immediately prior 59 to mating, during gestation and lactation periods using chow pellets containing a 60 cocktail of six pesticides at tolerable daily intake levels. Male and female offspring 61 were tracked for behavioral and in vivo electrophysiological adaptations. Second, a 62 zebrafish model allowed us to screen toxicity and motor-behavior outcomes 63 specifically associated with the developmental exposure to a low-to-high 64 concentration range of the cocktail and of each individual pesticide. Here, we report 65 anxiety-like behavior in male mice maternally exposed to the cocktail, as compared to 66 age and gender matched sham animals. In parallel, in vivo electrocorticography 67 revealed a decrease in gamma (40-80 Hz) and an increase of theta (6-9 Hz) waves, 68 delineating a long-term neuronal slowing. Neurological changes were not 69 accompanied by brain structural malformations. Next, by using zebrafish larvae, we 70 showed an increase of all motor-behavioral parameters resulting from the 71 developmental exposure to 10 µg/L of pesticide cocktail, an outcome that was not 72 associated with midbrain structural or neurovascular modifications as assessed by in 73 vivo 2-photon microscopy. When screening each pesticide, chlorpyrifos elicited 74 modifications of swimming parameters at 0.1 µg/L, while other components provoked 75 changes from 0.5 µg/L. Ziram was the single most toxic component inducing 76 developmental malformations and mortality at 10 µg/L. Although we have employed 77 non-equivalent modalities and timing of exposure in two dissimilar experimental 78

models, these outcomes indicate that presence of a pesticide cocktail during varying perinatal periods represents an element promoting behavioral and neurophysiological modifications. The study limitations and the pertinence of our findings to ecotoxicology and public health are critically discussed.

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84 Introduction

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Epidemiological evidence traces a link between presence of environmental 86 contaminants and a risk for the development of central nervous system (CNS) 87 negative trajectories (Baghdadli et al., 2019; Bouchard et al., 2011; Coker et al., 88 2017; De Felice et al., 2016; Engel et al., 2016; Eskenazi et al., 2004; Matsuki et al., 89 2020; Philippat et al., 2018, 2017; Rauh et al., 2011; Ricceri et al., 2006; Roberts et 90 al., 2019; Sagiv et al., 2019; Von Ehrenstein et al., 2019). Considering the existence 91 of pesticides in agricultural crops and in environmental matrices such as water, 92 investigating the impact of contaminants on brain functions is relevant to public health 93 and ecotoxicology. However, contemporary epidemiological alarms are not 94 adequately paralleled by experimental studies examining the neurological outcome 95 resulting from the maternal or perinatal exposure to pesticides, particularly when 96 97 these are combined as a cocktail and at dose ranges relevant to dietary or environmental settings. Most of the available results originated from investigations of 98 supra-threshold dosages of single pesticide(s), mimicking intoxications. In rodents, 99 doses exceeding the tolerable daily intake (TDI) have been used to study how pre-100 101 and neonatal exposure to the herbicide glyphosate causes behavioral impairments in adulthood (de Souza et al., 2019; Gallegos et al., 2016). Other reports showed long-102 term anxiety-like behaviors following perinatal exposure to high concentration of 103

104 chlorpyrifos (Braquenier et al., 2010; Silva et al., 2017). Furthermore,
105 neurodevelopmental toxicity was reported when testing high levels of boscalid in
106 zebrafish (Qian et al., 2018).

107

Here, by using two distinct mouse and zebrafish models we provide evidence 108 for an impact of maternal or developmental exposure to dietary and environmental 109 pesticides on neuronal functions. In one model, C57BL6/j mice were fed immediately 110 prior to and during mating, during pregnancy and lactation with chow pellets 111 containing a cocktail of six pesticides, with relevance to agriculture (EFSA, 2018; 112 113 Klement et al., 2020; Lukowicz et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2020) and exposing mice to the TDI for each pesticide. Using male and female offspring, we tracked behavior and 114 in vivo brain electrophysiological outcomes. In a second model, we systematically 115 exposed zebrafish larvae during development to either the complete pesticide 116 cocktail or individual components, at a wide range of concentrations (0.1 to 10.000 117 µg/L) which includes the varying water thresholds as defined by current international 118 guidelines (see Methods). The zebrafish larvae model allowed us to screen and 119 120 identify the components of the cocktail possibly inducing neurological modifications. 121 These analyses were integrated with ex vivo and in vivo 2-photon microscopy brain morphological and cellular assessments. By using this two experimental approaches, 122 we have found that varying perinatal exposures to pesticides promote discrete 123 neurophysiological and behavioral modifications in the absence of apparent structural 124 brain malformations. 125

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128 Material and Methods

Investigations were performed according to the institutional guidelines for 132 laboratory animal usage [European Union Council September 22, 2010 (2010/63)]. 133 Research using mice is covered by an accepted protocol (Apafis#13145-134 2018012216217153 v3). C57BL/6j mice were housed in a 12h light/dark cycle, 135 minimizing discomfort. Adult zebrafish (Danio rerio, AB wild-type strain) were 136 maintained under standardized conditions (28 ± 0.5°C, pH 7.0, 14h light/10h dark 137 photoperiod) in a recirculating system (Techniplast) and fed ad libitum twice per day 138 139 with dry pellet. Embryos were generated by natural spawning once a week. After fertilization, eggs were collected, cleaned in E3 medium and dead eggs were 140 removed. Next, 50 embryos were transferred in each petri dish containing 50 mL of 141 E3 medium and kept inside an incubator (28 ± 0.5°C). E3 medium was renewed 142 every day. At the end of the experiments, embryos were euthanized by immersion 143 using an overdose of tricaine methane sulfonate (300 mg/L; MS222, Sigma-Aldrich). 144

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146 Mouse perinatal exposure protocol and pesticides chow preparation

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We used a total of 32 female and 16 male mice (F0) to obtain synchronous pregnancy, birth and similar age range in each group (within 6 days). This protocol delivered an adequate number of male and female mice to be used for behavioural, telemetry electrocorticography, and histological analyses. Male and female C57BL/6j mice were fed with pesticide or control pellet immediately prior to and during mating (total of 1 week) to ensure presence of pesticide from fecundation. Animals were randomly divided into 2 groups, and one male and two females were housed in each

cage. Pregnant females were separated and housed in single dedicated cages. 155 During this phase, food (mg/day) and water (ml/day) intake were closely monitored, 156 and no significant differences were observed among the two groups (Table 1). This 157 protocol was previously used by our research consortium (Smith et al., 2020). At 158 weaning, all offspring were fed using standard control pellet and animals were kept in 159 cages of 4 individuals. The generation of the chow pellet containing pesticides is 160 identical to the one we have previously described and used in (Klement et al., 2020; 161 Lukowicz et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2020). The selected cocktail contains fungicides 162 and insecticides (ziram, thiophanate, captan, chlorpyrifos, boscalid, and thiacloprid) 163 164 that are relevant to agriculture, as suggested by the European Food Safety Authority reports (EFSA, 2018; Klement et al., 2020; Lukowicz et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2020). 165 Pregnant mice were exposed to the tolerable daily intake (TDI; mg/kg body 166 weight/day, See Supplemental Table 1). TDI is defined for humans by the EFSA and 167 by the Joint Food and Agriculture Organization (United Nations, World Health 168 Organization). TDI levels defined for human exposure were adjusted to mice body 169 weight (BW). In our study, we considered a mouse BW of 30 grams and a daily chow 170 intake of 5 g. Importantly, pesticide and sham pellets underwent the exact same 171 172 protocol of preparation, except for the incorporation of pesticides. This method is routinely executed at a dedicated facility (Animal Feed Preparation Unit) and it was 173 used by this research consortium. As we previously reported (Klement et al., 2020; 174 Lukowicz et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2020), the pesticides were dissolved in a 9:1 175 volume/volume methanol:acetone. The solution was dispersed on a Vitaminic powder 176 mixture-200 (Scientific Animal Food Engineering) and homogenized using a 177 Rotavapor (Laborota 4000™; BUCHI Switzerland; 45 °C) and then kept at room 178 temperature to evaporate the volatile solvents. Control diet was concomitantly 179

prepared following the exact same steps, and without adding pesticides. Traces of 180 methanol and acetone can be detected across pellet batches (e.g., < 0.05 g/Kg of 181 methanol/pellet and 0.001 to 0.003 g/kg of acetone/pellet). These amounts are well 182 below the levels associated with rodent maternal toxicity for solvents as reported by 183 U.S. Food Administration the and Drug (http://academy.gmp-184 compliance.org/guidemgr/files/UCM073401.PDF), the European Chemical Agency 185 (https://echa.europa.eu/registration-dossier/-/registered-dossier/15569/7/9/1; 186

<u>https://echa.europa.eu/registration-dossier/-/registered-dossier/15460/7/6/1</u>) and by
 the French Agency for Food, Environmental and Occupational Health & Safety
 (<u>https://www.anses.fr/fr/system/files/ALAN2007sa0013.pdf;</u>)

190 <u>https://www.dod.fr/PartageWeb/PartageWeb/Fiche_Tech/309266_fds_acetone.pdf</u>).

See discussion for further details. The resulting powder was incorporated into the pellet (SAAJ-RAF National Research Institute for Agriculture, Food and the Environment, INRAE). Pesticide levels in the pellet are re-analyzed by gas chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry and liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (Eurofins; Supplemental Table 1 and (Smith et al., 2020).

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197 Behavioural testing

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Mice were tested starting at 2 and 14 months of age. We analysed n=11 pesticide-diet male, n=11 standard-diet male (Figure 1). Two groups of female mice were tested: n=10 pesticide diet, n=12 standard diet and results are provided in Supplemental Figure 1. As we previously reported and described in (Klement et al., 2020) we performed: *Open field (OF)*. Spontaneous exploratory behaviour was monitored in an OF (opaque black plastic arena with 35cm width x 50cm length x

20cm height) for 10min. The center zone was defined as a virtual perimeter within 205 5cm from the sides of the arena. Experiments were videotaped and an observer 206 scored the time spent in the center and the number of transitions in the center zone. 207 Arena was cleaned with 70% ethanol after each mouse. Spatial working memory, 208 spontaneous alternation in the Y-maze. Each mouse was placed at the end of one 209 arm in a grey polyvinylchloride Y-maze and allowed to freely explore during a single 210 8min session. The series of arm entries, including possible returns into the same 211 arm, was recorded visually. An alternation was defined as entries into all three arms 212 on consecutive trials. The percentage of alternation was calculated as actual 213 alternations/maximum alternations x 100. Measured parameters included the 214 percentage of alternation (memory index) and total number of arm entries 215 (exploration index). All arms were cleaned with 70% ethanol between two sessions. 216 *Light/Dark Transition test.* The apparatus consists of a cage (21x42x25) divided into 217 two chambers, dark and bright, of equal size by a partition with a door. Mice were 218 allowed to move freely between the two chambers during 10min. The number of 219 entries into the bright chamber and the duration of time spent there were measured 220 by videotracking (Viewpoint, Lissieu, France). After each trial, all chambers were 221 cleaned with 70% ethanol. Elevated-Plus-Maze (EPM). The EPM is a 4-arm maze 222 elevated 40cm above the floor. The 4 arms intersect and form a plus sign (dimension 223 of each arm: length 30cm, width 5cm, and center region 5x5 cm²). Two of the arms 224 225 are closed on 3 sides by 15 cm high walls, and the other two are open. Animals were placed in the centre of the apparatus and allowed to freely explore the maze for 226 10min. Score for entries and time spent in open arms were measured. All arms were 227 cleaned with 70% ethanol after each mouse entry. Social Interaction. The apparatus 228 was a rectangular 3-chambered polycarbonate box. The test mouse was placed into 229

the middle chamber and allowed to explore freely for 10min. The test was video 230 tracked (Viewpoint). Time spent in each chamber was analysed to measure the side 231 preference bias. Each of the 2 sides contained an inverted empty wire cup. After the 232 habituation period, the test mouse was retired, an unfamiliar mouse was introduced 233 into one of the empty wire cups. The test mouse was reintroduced and time spent 234 sniffing each wire cup was analysed for 10min. Rotarod. Balance and motor 235 coordination as well as motor learning were assessed using an acceleration rotarod. 236 Mice were placed on the rotating drum accelerating from 4 to 40 rpm over 5min for 3 237 trials a day and for 5 consecutive days. The trial interval was 45min for all mice. 238 Rotarod sessions were scored for latency to fall. 239

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241 Freely moving telemetry Video-electroencephalography

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A total of 16 male and 16 female C57BI/6 mice were used at 2 and at 243 14 months (n=4/group, pesticides and control), and monitored by using Video-EEG 244 telemetry. Because of technical issues (defective implants) two male mice (1 control 245 and 1 pesticide exposed; Figure 2) and two female mice (Supplemental Figure 2) 246 were excluded from the analysis. As we previously reported (Ichkova et al., 2020; 247 Klement et al., 2020; Runtz et al., 2018; Zub et al., 2019), animals were anesthetized 248 using a intraperitoneal injection with chloral hydrate and xylazine (400 mg/kg; 249 4 mg/kg). Animals were placed on a heating pad during the procedure ensuring a 250 physiological temperature. A telemetry implant (Physiotel transmitter ETA-F10, 251 weight 1.6 g, 1.1 cm³, Data Science international DSI, St Paul, MN, USA) was placed 252 into a ventral pocket. The subcutaneous tissue covering the skull was separated and 253 the periosteum cleaned. Two screws (one bipolar electrode) are inserted in the skull 254

corresponding to the fronto-parietal neocortex. Screws were attached to the 255 transmitter wires. Dental cement was used to fix the two screws to the skull. The 256 incision was closed using a non-reabsorbable 6/0 suture material (prolene 257 polyprolene, Ethicon) and stitches. Mice were allowed to recover for 1 week. Mice 258 were recorded (Dataquest ART software DSI) for at least 24 h, equally distributed 259 between day and night. Signals were acquired at 500 Hz and analyzed using 260 Neuroscore. Video analysis was executed by an operator to rule out motion artifacts 261 (e.g., eating, drinking or chewing). Trace portions (1-5 min/extract, for a total of 262 30 min/mouse) were chosen considering light vs. dark phases, awake/exploratory vs. 263 sleep/immobility, and avoiding all motion artifacts. Periodogram Power Bands 264 (Neuroscore) was calculated for all EEG and the relative abundance of each 0.5 Hz 265 increment (0.5-80 Hz) was quantified (Boussadia et al., 2018, 2016; Ichkova et al., 266 2020). As we routinely perform and we previously described (Ichkova et al 2020, Zub 267 et al 2019), spike or seizure analysis was executed as follow: 1) setting a threshold 268 for spike detection of 2.5 x times the standard deviation of the baseline; 2) minimum 269 and maximum spike duration (1 and 100 ms); 3) minimum train-spike duration 5s with 270 a minimum number of spikes of n= 5 (at least 1Hz). Minimum separation between 271 272 two seizures: 1 second. Peak detection was visually re-checked a posteriori.

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274 Zebrafish pesticides exposure protocol

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Zebrafish embryos were exposed to the same cocktail used for mice, or to each of the single components. The exposition was from 1.5 hours post-fertilization (hpf) to 120 hpf. The concentrations of pesticides tested across experiments were: 0.1, 0.5, 1, 10, 100, 1.000 and 10.000 μ g/L. These concentrations were chosen

based on: i) the European drinking water directive (98/83/EC) and the ground water 280 directive (2006/118/EC) which set a maximum concentration of 0.1 µg/L for an 281 individual pesticide and 0.5 µg/L for total pesticides; ii) US aquatic life benchmarks 282 pesticides (https://www.epa.gov/pesticide-science-and-assessing-283 for reaistered pesticide-risks/aquatic-life-benchmarks-and-ecological-risk); iii) reported 284 environmental concentrations (Morrissey et al., 2015; Qian et al., 2021, 2018; 285 Thompson et al., 2020; Velisek and Stara, 2018; Vu et al., 2016) and previous 286 publications (Cao et al., 2019; Jia et al., 2020; Lulla et al., 2016; Osterauer and 287 Köhler, 2008; Qian et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2019). All water 288 solutions were renovated every day. The treatments were performed in duplicate 289 using 50 larvae in each petri dish. Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was used as solvent 290 carrier for the pesticides, with a maximum concentration of 100 μ L/L [0.01 % (v/v)]. 291 292 DMSO did not induce embryotoxicity at the concentration used (data not shown), as also reported by others (Christou et al., 2020; Hallare et al., 2006; Hong and Zha, 293 2019; Kais et al., 2013; Maes et al., 2012). All pesticides were dissolved with DMSO 294 to obtain stock solutions of 100 mg pesticide/L, and aliquots were kept at -20°C. 295 Stock solutions were diluted with E3 medium to obtain the working concentrations. 296 297 For the cocktail, 100 µL from stock solution of each pesticide were mixed and then diluted to the targeted final concentration. The presence of single pesticide in the 298 cocktail was confirmed by the Phytocontrol Agrifood Laboratory (Nimes, France) 299 300 using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) for boscalid, thiacloprid, and thiophanate (not shown). Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry 301 (GC-MS/HS) was used for captan, chlorpyrifos, and ziram (not shown). 302

303 Zebrafish locomotor activity

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Locomotor activity was analyzed as we previously described (Forner-Piquer et al., 2020) using 120 hpf zebrafish embryos, exposed to cocktail or single pesticide. We examined: i) distance traveled; ii) mean velocity; iii) maximum velocity; iv) body mobility; v) rotation clockwise; vi) rotation counterclockwise; vii) heading center-point; viii) angular velocity; ix) meander. Data are expressed as fold change: [(replicate / mean CTR group) * 100].

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Morphological assessments, zebrafish phalloidin staining of actin fibers, in vivo 2photon microscopy brain analysis.

314

Morphological parameters were measured at 120 hpf for zebrafish exposed to 315 0.1, 0.5, 1 and 10 µg/L of cocktail pesticide (duplicate, n=10/group) as we previously 316 317 described (Forner-Piquer et al., 2020). Mortality rate at 24 hpf and cumulative hatching at 96 and 120 hpf were also evaluated (duplicate, n = 200/group). In 318 zebrafish, 120 hpf larvae from control and 10 µg/L cocktail groups were stained using 319 Phalloidin-iFluor 594 (muscle fibers; Abcam ab176757) in duplicate, n=10/group; see 320 (Forner-Piquer et al., 2020). For in vivo 2-photon brain analyses, 96-hpf 321 Tg(fli1a:GFP)y1Tg (duplicate, CTR n=15, 10 µg/L n=10) and Tg(HuC:Tomato)322 (duplicate, CTR n=10, 10 µg/L n=5) transgenic zebrafish larvae were studied as we 323 previously described (Forner-Piquer et al., 2020). 324

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328 Mouse brain histology.

We tested the presence of structural-to-cell modifications in the mouse brain. 330 To this end we used available tissues from i) n=8 pesticide diet; n=6 standard diet 331 male mice at 2 months; ii) n=8 pesticide diet, n=7 standard diet male mice at 14 332 months. After intracardial perfusion with PBS, brains were dissected and fixed in PFA 333 4% solution. Fixed brains were immerged in sucrose 15% for 24h followed by 334 sucrose 30%. Brains were then snap frozen and stored at -80°C. Slices (20 µm) were 335 obtained using a cryostat. Immunohistochemistry was performed after PBS washes. 336 Slices were added with blocking solution (PBS, triton 0.5%, horse serum 20%) at 337 room temperature for 1h. Primary antibodies (anti-GFAP chicken Abcam Ab4674 338 339 1/300 or anti-CD13 rat Abcam ab33489 1/100) were diluted in blocking solution and slices incubated overnight at 4°C. After PBS washes, Jackson ImmunoResearch 340 secondary antibody [Donkey anti-chicken Alexa Fluor Cy3 (703-165-155) or Donkey 341 342 anti-rat Cy3 (712-165-153)] was added in PBS for 2h at room temperature (dilution 1/500). After PBS washes, slices were mounted using Vectashield containing DAPI. 343 For all quantifications, 20X Z-stack images (Z=12 to 15 planes, each of 1um) were 344 analysed using Fiji. Two slices were examined for each mouse to quantify signals in 345 constant regions of interest (ROI) CA1, CA3, DG, white matter (WT) and CTX, as 346 identified by DAPI maps (Table 2). Prior to analysis, all Z-stacks images were 347 combined (Z-project, sum). GFAP quantification: images were converted to RGB 348 stack format. Signal threshold was adjusted to 200 units for each image. Area of 349 GFAP signal was calculated setting threshold sensitivity equal for each image. GFAP 350 data are expressed as a percentage of ROI total pixels. CD13 vessel tracing 351 quantification: a skeleton plug-in was used. The analysis is automated setting 352 threshold sensitivity identical for each image. Length is calculated as pixel. Finally, 353 DAPI cartographies of the parietal cortex and underling dorsal hippocampi were 354

obtained by a montage of 10X images. Cortical thickness (1st cortical layer to white
matter; μm) and hippocampal size (distance between CA1 pyramidal neurons and
dentate gyrus granular cells) were quantified using Fiji (line tool) performing multiple
(3 to 4) measurements for each mouse.

- 359
- 360 Statistics
- 361

All data were analyzed using Prism 8.3.1. When data fulfilled the criteria for 362 applying a parametric test, one-way ANOVA was used followed by Dunnett's multiple 363 364 comparisons test, otherwise, Kruskal-Wallis (non-parametric) followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons test was used (e.g., body morphology, mortality, locomotor 365 test). For hatching analysis, two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple 366 comparison test was applied. When two experimental groups were examined (e.g., 367 mouse behavior and EEG read-outs) an unpaired t-test (parametric with Welsh 368 correction) or a Mann-Whitney test (nonparametric) were used. Histological mouse 369 data were analysed using nonparametric test (Table 2). Significance threshold was 370 set at p < 0.05. Superscript asterisks (*) evidenced statistical differences among 371 groups: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Results are reported as 372 box and whiskers plot with single points. All mouse experiments were blinded as 373 three researchers were implicated (mouse housing, neurological explorations, 374 histology). Zebrafish investigations were performed by one researcher. 375

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377

378 **Results**

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In mice, maternal exposure to a pesticide cocktail associates with long-term
behavioral adaptations and brain electrographic slowing.

382

We specifically examined whether mice maternally exposed to a pesticide 383 cocktail, at TDI levels (Supplemental Table 1), showed behavioral changes during 384 adulthood or aging. While no significant modifications were observed in young adult 385 mice (2-3 months), exposure to pesticides triggered long-term (14 months) 386 modifications in male mice. We report an increase in spontaneous locomotor activity 387 (Figure 1A, B, D) as compared to control. At this time point, pesticides-exposed mice 388 also showed increased anxiety-like behavior when tested in the elevated plus maze 389 (EPM), with a reduction in time spent and number of entries in the open arms (Figure 390 1E, F). This phenotype was further confirmed when mice were tested in a light/dark 391 392 box, a behavioral assay that relies on the innate aversion of rodents to explore unfamiliar areas. As shown in Figure 1G-I, male mice exposed to the pesticide 393 cocktail spent slightly less time in the light zone (Figure 1G) and showed reduced 394 time per entry (Figure 1H), despite a similar number of entries (Figure 1I). These 395 results indicate that maternal exposure to pesticide cocktail elicits a long-term 396 397 anxiety-like behavior. No significant modifications were observed when testing female mice (Supplemental Figure 1). 398

399

400 Next, we asked whether such exposure to pesticides modifies memory-related 401 functions. To this end, we performed the Y-Maze (working memory) and the rotarod 402 (procedural and motor learning and memory) tests. We observed no significant 403 impairments in working memory and procedural learning, as all groups showed a 404 similar alternation index in the Y-Maze (Figure 1J, K) and similar motor learning and

405 memory (Day1 *vs* Day5, Figure 1L). These results indicate that the anxiety-like 406 behavior observed in male mice exposed perinatally to pesticides does not 407 generalize into memory deficits. No significant modifications were found when 408 analyzing female mice (Supplemental Figure 1).

409

To extend this study, we performed *in vivo* electrocorticography explorations 410 (Figure 2 and Supplemental Figure 2). Spike activity or epileptiform modifications 411 were not identified under these experimental conditions (Figure 2A1-B1). We next 412 quantified theta and gamma EEG waves during awake/exploratory and 413 414 sleep/immobility phases, as electrographic biomarkers of neurological dysfunction (Ishii et al., 2018; Milikovsky et al., 2019). Figure 2C-C1 shows examples of entire 415 EEG frequency spectrograms (0.5-80 Hz) calculated for individual mice. A significant 416 417 decrease in the percentage of gamma waves (40-80 Hz) was measured at 14 months during awake periods in male mice perinatally exposed to the pesticides cocktail 418 (Figure 2D2). A typical decrease of gamma waves was recorded during 419 sleep/immobility periods (Figure 2D1-D3) with no significant difference between any 420 of the experimental groups. Within the theta wave range, the percentage of specific 421 422 frequencies (6-9 Hz) was increased during awake periods at 2 and 14 months in pesticide exposed male mice (Figure 2E-E3). Explorations performed in female mice 423 did not identify significant EEG patterns or robust signatures when comparing control 424 and pesticide exposed groups (Supplemental Figure 2). 425

426

Finally, we asked whether structural brain malformations could have influenced the aforementioned outcomes. No significant changes (DAPI maps, see Methods) were observed between pesticide exposed animals and their sex, age-

matched controls (control female hippo 561.8 ± 184.5; control male hippo 559.9 ± 430 266.5; pesticide female hippo 510.2 \pm 140; pesticide male hippo 570 \pm 197.3; control 431 female cortex 1173 ± 169.9; control male cortex 1439 ± 231.8; pesticide female 432 cortex 1192 \pm 177.5; pesticide male cortex 1090 \pm 193.9 µm; mean+/-SD, P > 0.05, 433 Kruskal-Wallis). We further examined the regional distribution of GFAP glial cells and 434 CD13 pericyte-capillary length in dorsal hippocampal sub-regions (CA1, CA3 and 435 DG), somatosensory cortex, and white matter. We report no significant differences 436 (Table 2 and Supplemental Figure 3). Taken together, these results indicate that a 437 dietary perinatal exposure to a low-dose pesticide cocktail is associated with 438 behavioral and neurophysiological modifications in aging male mice and in the 439 absence of major structural brain malformations. 440

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In zebrafish larvae, pesticide cocktail triggers dose-dependent locomotor behavioralmodifications.

444

We used a zebrafish model to examine the effects elicited by ranging pesticide cocktail concentrations (0.1 to 10.000 μ g/L, see Methods) during development. We initially screened mortality, hatching rate, and morphological outcomes (Figure 3). No significant modifications were observed at cocktail concentrations from 0.1 to 10 μ g/L (Figure 3A). Concentrations >10 μ g/L induced gross morphological malformations in the notochord and delayed development (Figure 3B). Furthermore, mortality was significantly increased from 10 μ g/L and the hatching rate was diminished.

452 Next, assessment of locomotor behavior at 120 hpf showed an increase in the
453 distance travelled, average velocities (mean and maximum), body mobility, and
454 number of rotations at 10 μg/L pesticide cocktail (Figure 4). Interestingly, a decrease

of specific motor parameters occurred at 0.5 µg/L (Figure 4B, C and E). To examine 455 whether the behavioral modifications, observed at 10 µg/L, could have been 456 associated with structural brain malformations we reconstructed the neuronal and 457 cerebrovascular architectures. Tg(fli1a:GFP)yTg transgenic zebrafish larvae, 458 expressing green fluorescent protein (GFP) in cerebral vessels, were analyzed by 459 using *in vivo* 2-photon microscopy. Figure 5A and 5A1 shows examples of z-stack 460 images. 3D skeleton analysis (Figure 5B and 5B1) of the cerebrovascular tree 461 indicates that 10 µg/L of cocktail does not modify midbrain total vascular length 462 (Figure 5D). By using a zebrafish reporter line Tg(HuC:Tomato), we examined 463 whether 10 µg/L cocktail affected brain neuronal structures (Figure 5C and 5C1). No 464 significant changes were detected in optic nerve length (Figure 5E), optic nerve 465 thickness (Figure 5F), and length of the 1st hindbrain axon projection (Figure 5G). As 466 a corollary, we ruled out the possible contribution of muscular modifications to the 467 observed locomotor changes by staining F-actin fibers with phalloidin (Supplemental 468 Figure 4). We report no difference in muscle fiber length (CTR: 80 \pm 2.7; 10 μ g/L: 81 469 \pm 6.1; t-test, p = 0.6429). These data indicate that, in zebrafish larvae, developmental 470 exposure to the pesticide cocktail modifies locomotor activities in a dose-dependent 471 manner. 472

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476 Screening the effects of single pesticide(s) on zebrafish larval locomotor behavior.477

The use of zebrafish model allowed us to systematically screen the effect 478 479 elicited by each single pesticide contained in the cocktail, testing a broad range of concentrations (Table 3). Ziram provoked mortality impeding behavioral testing at 480 concentrations >10 µg/L. Distance, mean velocity and body mobility were all 481 significantly impacted starting from 0.5 µg/L (Table 3F). Thiophanate and thiacloprid 482 were not lethal and locomotor modifications occurred following exposure to 10, 100 483 and 10.000 µg/L (Table 3D and 3E). Boscalid and chlorpyrifos were lethal at the 484 highest concentration tested (Table 3A, 3C; 10.000 ug/L). In our experimental 485 conditions, chlorpyrifos significantly modified all motor-behavior parameters at a low 486 487 concentration of 0.1 µg/L. Boscalid decreased selected parameters such as distance, velocity and body mobility at 0.5 µg/L. Captan (Table 3B) induced mortality at 1000 488 and 10000 µg/L, while a reduction in distance, velocities and body mobility occurred 489 490 at 10 µg/L. Collectively, these results outline the varying and dose-dependent impact of each pesticide, unveiling an effect of chlorpyrifos at a low concentration. 491

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497 **Discussion**

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While there is no direct equivalence between the mouse and the zebrafish 499 larvae models and protocols, this particular integrative experimental design may help 500 understanding the varying brain effects associated with the exposure to specific 501 pesticides, as a cocktail or single, within dietary and environmentally relevant 502 settings. Introduction of a pesticide cocktail, at TDI levels from pre-mating to 503 weaning, associates with sex-dependent behavioral and in vivo electrographic 504 modifications unfolding long-term in mice. Furthermore, the zebrafish larval model 505 506 allowed us to systematically screen low-to-high pesticide concentrations, as a cocktail or alone, and subsequently determine that levels generally higher than 507 current environmental EU limits (European Directives 98/83/EC and 2006/118/EC) 508 509 and during development can provoke significant behavioral modifications.

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511 Perinatal exposure to dietary pesticide cocktail: a risk factor for neurological 512 sequelae?

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Recent experimental studies have traced a link between maternal, perinatal or 514 developmental exposure to food contaminants and cognitive deficits during adulthood 515 (de Souza et al., 2019; Gallegos et al., 2016; Venerosi et al., 2015). Furthermore, 516 epidemiological studies have indicated that maternal or postnatal exposure to 517 pesticides (i.e chlorpyrifos, carbamate) can be associated with neurodevelopmental 518 alterations, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and motor or social defects 519 (Fortenberry et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). By using a mouse 520 model, we report sex- and age-dependent neurological modifications, thus supporting 521

a long-term trajectory. Male mice were more susceptible to this selected pesticide 522 cocktail as compared to female, in accordance to previously reported behavioral 523 modifications resulting from the prolonged dietary exposure to this cocktail (Klement 524 et al., 2020). Here, we report significant in vivo electrocorticographic changes, 525 specifically the decrease in fast gamma waves and the increase in slow theta waves 526 during aging, at 14 months, a finding that is coherent with the emerging notion of an 527 electrophysiological signature characterized by the slowing of the cortical neuronal 528 network in experimental cognitive dysfunctions (Milikovsky et al., 2019). Our results 529 are consistent with clinical monitoring of gamma waves as a potential biomarker for 530 neurological pathophysiology (laccarino et al., 2016; Kitchigina, 2018; Mably and 531 Colgin, 2018), while enhanced slow theta waves have been proposed to associate 532 with an abnormal, or accelerated, aging (Ishii et al., 2018). In our study, female mice 533 did not present with robust behavioral and electrographic changes, supporting the 534 hypothesis of a dimorphic impact of pesticides on neuronal functions. We 535 acknowledge that, although all physiological explorations were performed at 536 consistent time schedules, we did not account for the estrous cycle in female mice, a 537 potential pitfall as estradiol levels can impact behavioral outcomes (Azcoitia et al., 538 539 2010).

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Here, the pesticide cocktail was used at tolerable daily intake (TDI) levels in an attempt to model a consumer relevant exposure. This is a significant departure from previous work that has mainly focused on the effects elicited by supra-threshold and high concentrations of single pesticides. For instance, mice perinatally exposed to elevated concentrations of malathion developed anxiety-like traits and presented with impairment of social interactions (Ouardi et al., 2019). Perinatal exposure to the

insecticide permethrin was associated with an incomplete adaptation to a novel 547 environment, as well as an impairment in learning and memory in adult males (Saito 548 et al., 2019). Exposure to high concentrations of glyphosate during gestation and 549 lactation, delayed innate reflexes and caused a deficit in motor development (Ait-Bali 550 et al., 2020), as well as autism spectrum disorder-like behaviors (Pu et al., 2020). 551 Male pups exposed to high concentration of chlorpyrifos displayed an enhanced 552 investigative response to unfamiliar social stimuli, whereas females showed a lack of 553 reaction to social novelty (Venerosi et al., 2015). Another study indicated that 554 gestational exposure to chlorpyrifos induces social deficits in adult mice in a sex-555 dependent manner (Lan et al., 2019). 556

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It is worth to mention that our experimental design does not allow to isolate a 558 single and specific mechanism responsible for the observed sex-specific and long-559 term neurological changes. Importantly, this research consortium reported sex-560 dependent perturbations of the urinary and fecal metabolic fingerprints in response to 561 this protocol of perinatal pesticides exposure (Smith et al., 2020). Together with the 562 data here presented, this evidence supports the hypothesis of a gut-brain extra-563 physiological mechanism in this experimental settings (Cryan et al., 2019). 564 Furthermore, the reported neuronal defects support the notion of unfavorable 565 neurophysiological trajectories in conditions where an early insult was delivered. A 566 concept of initial priming, here applied to pesticide exposure, was previously 567 postulated for other pathological conditions and insults, such as brain or peripheral 568 infections, or early trauma, where a progressive brain pathology unfolds over time 569 (Estes and McAllister, 2016; Ichkova et al., 2020; Patterson, 2011). Although our 570 results indicate preserved brain structures and cell distributions, the possibility of 571

specific molecular activations or sub-cellular inflammatory processes remain to be examined (Giannoni et al., 2020; Marchi et al., 2011; Oliviero et al., 2020). In summary, our data suggest that a perinatal exposure to a pesticide cocktail at low, TDI, levels is sufficient to elicit long-term neurophysiological changes or adaptations, at least in male rodents. Clinical and epidemiological studies are required to understand the significance and applicability of these findings to humans.

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579 Screening the effects of environmental pesticide(s): clues from a zebrafish larval 580 model.

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Zebrafish larvae display a rich behavior and a high sensitivity to environmental 582 pollutants, making this aquatic vertebrate a pertinent model for neurotoxicology (Cao 583 et al., 2019; Hong and Zha, 2019; Stewart et al., 2014). Here, we outline significant 584 motor-behavioral defects elicited by the pesticide cocktail at a concentration (10 μ g/L) 585 greater than the one allowed in water (European Directive 98/83/EC). However, 586 discrete motor modifications also occurred at a specific concentration of 0.5 µg/L. 587 When testing single pesticides, we found that chlorpyrifos significantly modified all 588 motor-behavior parameters at the environmental concentration of 0.1 µg/L. 589 Intriguingly, chlorpyrifos induced effects were significant at low and high dosages, an 590 outcome that requires further examinations, also in light of non-monotonic responses 591 previously reported for other environmental contaminants (Vandenberg, 2015; 592 Vandenberg et al., 2012). Further evidence for an adverse effect of chlorpyrifos 593 arises from rodent studies, showing sex-dependent neuroendocrine responses and a 594 sex-dimorphic social behavior in response to in utero and neonatal exposure. 595 Importantly, selected pesticides may act as neuro-endocrine disrupting chemicals, 596

interfering with hormones homeostasis, hypothalamic neuropeptides, and brain maturation (Venerosi et al, 2012). Furthermore, pesticides are frequently applied as combinations (Covert et al., 2020) and the impact of a mixture is rather unpredictable because combined chemicals can generate additive, independent, synergistic, or antagonist effects (Rizzati et al., 2016). Our results are in agreement with the latter concept, as the pesticide cocktail induced dissimilar patterns of locomotor response as compared to the single components (Pérez et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2018, 2017).

evidence linked pesticide Emerging has cocktail exposure to 605 606 neurodevelopmental disorders (Liu and Schelar, 2012; Roberts et al., 2019). Zebrafish exposed to 50 nM ziram (15 μ g/L) and high concentrations of boscalid (0.3, 607 0.6 and 1.2 mg/L) displayed a decrease in locomotor activity (Lulla et al., 2016; Qian 608 609 et al., 2018). In accordance with our results, previous studies indicated that chlorpyrifos, or other organophosphate compounds (i.e. diisopropylflorophosphate), 610 reduced swimming activity (Cao et al., 2018; Richendrfer and Creton, 2015; Tilton et 611 al., 2011; Brenet et al, 2020). To our knowledge, the data presented in Table 3 612 provide previously unavailable indications of locomotor defects triggered by varying 613 614 concentrations of captan, thiophanate and thiacloprid. We also report that this specific pesticide cocktail (Figure 3), or ziram alone (data not shown), provoked gross 615 body malformations at a concentration > 10 µg/L. Previous studies indicated that 616 ziram is highly toxic for zebrafish larvae, inducing mortality in a dose-dependent 617 manner, diminishing hatching rate and causing deformities at 100 and 1000 nM (0.30 618 mg/L) (Cao et al., 2019). Here, captan elicited mortality at \geq 100 µg/L, in accordance 619 to recent studies showing a reduced hatching rate and increased developmental 620 deformities at 0.58 mg and 0.66 mg captan/L, respectively (Zhou et al., 2019). 621

622 Conclusions.

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While our study outlines variations in neurophysiological outcomes in 624 response to early-stages pesticides exposure in two experimental models, the 625 cellular and molecular underpinnings of the reported changes remain to be 626 deciphered. As previously mentioned, hypotheses include the role of the gut-brain 627 axis (Smith et al., 2020) along with an inflammatory track in response to pesticides, 628 within dietary or environmentally relevant experimental conditions. Existing evidence 629 points to inflammation unfolding during, or in response to, the exposure to 630 contaminants (Banks and Lein, 2012; Cao et al., 2019; Gómez-Giménez et al., 2017; 631 Hossain et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015). The latter notion is significant considering 632 the pathological impact that inflammation exerts on brain neuronal transmission from 633 developmental into adulthood and aging (Dallérac and Rouach, 2016; Pekny et al., 634 2016; Suzuki et al., 2011). 635

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We here underscore that our study presents a number of limitations and, by 637 design, experimental dissonances. First, mice and zebrafish have highly dissimilar 638 timing and modalities of development. If embryonic mice develop in their mothers' 639 womb and are thus exposed to the pesticide via their mothers' dietary intake, 640 zebrafish fertilization and embryonic development occur externally. Therefore, it is 641 necessary to directly treat the developing zebrafish embryos to determine whether 642 the pesticide cocktail affects this process. In zebrafish, the exposure to pesticides is 643 direct from the water and the chorion is the only protection afforded to the larvae. The 644 extent of maternal biotransformation of pesticides and the protection granted by the 645

placental barrier in rodents during pregnancy remains to be examined. As a result,dosages and routes of exposure between mouse and zebrafish are not comparable.

The possibility exists that, in our experimental design, gametogenesis could 648 have been already impacted even if the presence of low, TDI, levels of pesticides. 649 The latter represent an unexplored field of investigations. Importantly, available 650 literature indicates spermatogenesis/oogenesis damage resulting from the exposure 651 to pesticides, although at concentrations higher than the ones used here. For 652 instance, oral exposure to ziram (1 - 8 mg / kg / day) disrupts fetal Leydig cell 653 development and inhibits several steroidogenic enzymes, negatively affecting male 654 reproduction (Guo et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018). The neonicotinonid thiacloprid (22.5 655 mg / kg / day) impairs sperm quality, induces abnormal spermatozoa morphology and 656 irregular seminiferous tubules (Kammoun et al., 2017). When chlorpyrifos is 657 administered by gavage (2.7 - 37 mg / kg/ day), spermatogenesis is arrested, the 658 number of Leydig cells decreases as well as the sperm quality. Furthermore, the 659 levels of sex steroids are disrupted and morphological alterations in seminiferous 660 tubules are reported (Babazadeh and Najafi, 2017; Farag et al., 2010; Joshi et al., 661 2007; Sai et al., 2014). When female albino rats are exposed to chlorpyrifos (0.1 and 662 663 2.5 mg/kg/day), several alterations were found such as an unbalanced estrous cycle, morphological modifications in the ovarian and uterine surface epithelium, and 664 follicular atresia (Nishi and Hundal, 2013). 665

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667 Whether the defective locomotor behavior observed in zebrafish exposed to 668 the pesticide cocktail persists into adulthood should be examined. Whether there is a 669 combinatory effect between 2 or 3 specific molecules within the pesticide cocktail 670 remains to be determined and this exceeds the capacity of our current research effort. Finally, although present at low trace amounts in both diets (see Methods), the possibility exists that remaining solvents may introduce a confounding factor if, yet unidentified, synergistic effects between such low levels of methanol, acetone, and TDI pesticides occur.

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In conclusion, we provide the indication that varying protocols of perinatal exposure to a pesticide cocktail induces model dependent, neurological adaptations in the absence of structural brain modifications. The mechanistic and molecular underpinnings of such neurophysiological manifestations remain to be elucidated.

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997 Figure 1: Perinatal exposure to dietary pesticides elicits an anxiety-like 998 phenotype during aging in male mice. The panels indicate the behavioral 999 parameters examined in males. Supplemental Figure 1 provides results obtained 1000 using female mice. Open field test and locomotor activity: (A) speed, (B) distance 1001 travelled, (C) time spent in the center zone and (D) immobility time in the open field

test. Elevated-plus maze (EPM): (E) Time spent and (F) number of entries in the 1002 open arms during the EPM test. Light/Dark box: (G) time spent in the light zone, (H) 1003 time per entry and (I) number of entries in the light zone. Y-Maze test (working 1004 *memory*): (J) number of entries and (K) percentage of spontaneous alternation in the 1005 Y-Maze. Rotarod (procedural and motor learning): (L) Latency of fall (s) following a 1006 training period of 5 days. 11 male mice were used for each experimental group. Data 1007 are analyzed using the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA: (A) H₃=9.753, 1008 p=0.0208, (**B**) H₃=11.34, p=0.010, (**C**) H₃=2.512, p=0.4730, (**D**) H₃=23.74, p<0.0001, 1009 (E) $H_3=10.55$, p=0.0144, (F) $H_3=13.07$, p=0.0045, (G) $H_3=4.793$, p=0.1876, (H) 1010 $H_3=11.45$, p=0.00995, (I) $H_3=9.087$, p=0.0282, (J) $H_3=3.481$, p=0.3232, (K) 1011 1012 H₃=1.363, p=0.7142, (L)

H₃=0.3088, p=0.9584. The Dunn's test was used for multiple comparisons between groups (Ctr 2m *vs* Pesticides 2m; Ctr 14m *vs* Pesticides 14m): *p < 0.05 and **p <

1015 0.01.



Figure 2. Time-dependent electroencephalographic modifications in freely 1017 moving male mice prenatally exposed to the pesticide cocktail. A-B1) Examples 1018 of EEG traces obtained at 2 and 14 months and relative color-coded wave 1019 distributions. Spike or seizure activity was not observed. C-C1) Examples of whole 1020 frequency spectrograms (0.5–80 Hz; black line: control; red line: prenatal pesticides). 1021 One line corresponds to one mouse. **D-D1**) Percentage gamma waves (40-80Hz) 1022 recorded during awake/exploratory and sleep/immobility phases in control and 1023 prenatal pesticides exposed mice at 2 and (D2-D3) at 14 months. E-E1) Percentage 1024 theta waves (4-9.5Hz) recorded during awake/exploratory and sleep/immobility 1025 phases in control and prenatal pesticides exposed mice at 2 and (E2-E3) at 14 1026 months. Supplemental Figure 2 provides results obtained using female mice. Data 1027

1028	were analyzed using non-parametric Mann-Whitney or parametric t-test with Welch
1029	correction, *p < 0.05; $0.07 .$
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COCKTAIL		CTR	0.1 µg/L	0.5 µg/L	1 µg/L	10 µg/L		
Body len	gth (µm)	3732 ± 148.7	3600 ± 186.6	3678 ± 75.60	3670 ± 144.6	3620 ± 109.9		
Swim bladder area (µm²)		63901 ± 6764	66396 ± 6308	58370 ± 18138	60818 ± 13739	61140 ± 3020		
Head wid	Head width (µm)		ead width (µm) 602.3 ± 16.89		615.1 ± 23.42	608.4 ± 33.30	612.8 ± 28.70	597.7 ± 42.36
Eye wid	lth (µm)	235.5 ± 6.81	235.7 ± 5.65	238.4 ± 22.72	239.0±8.58	231.3 ± 11.27		
Eye leng	gth (µm)	334.2 ± 4.86	335.6 ± 6.15	325.1 ± 31.13	329.6 ± 12.05	325.0 ± 11.98		
Trunk-head	angle (deg)	155.2 ± 3.69	155.4 ± 2.66	156.5 ± 2.78	153.9 ± 5.93	151.4 ± 2.94		
Mortal	ity (%)	15.57 ± 2.52	18.60 ± 6.49	13.70 ± 11.80	20.08 ± 8.77	31.29 ± 5.00*		
Hatching	96 hpf	84.09 ± 17.15	70.99 ± 16.47	93.40 ± 9.43	90.68 ± 12.88	64.53 ± 15.51 *		
rate (%)	120 hpf	99.67 ± 0.87	92.85 ± 3.23	95.90 ± 4.96	95.48 ± 5.28	78.63 ± 6.70 **		



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Figure 3. Morphological parameters, hatching rate, and mortality of zebrafish 1048 1049 larvae exposed to a dose range pesticide cocktail. A) Morphological parameters: standard body length (BL, µm, F=1.292, p=0.2522), swim bladder (SB, µm², 1050 H₄=3.641, p=0.4567), head width (HW, µm, F=0.5741, p=0.6828), eye width (EW, 1051 1052 μm, H₄=3.369, p=0.4981), eye length (EL, μm, H₄=4.116, p=0.3905) and trunk-head angle (TH, degrees, F=2.548, p=0.0536) of zebrafish larvae at 120 hpf, experiments 1053 conducted in duplicate (n=10/group; 1-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple 1054 comparisons test or Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test, p < 0.05). 1055 Mortality at 24 hpf, experiments conducted in duplicate (n=200/group; 1-way ANOVA, 1056 Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, F=3.094 p=0.0337). Cumulative hatching rate 1057 consecutively assessed at 72 and 96 hpf and expressed as (hatched eggs / total) * 1058 100, experiments conducted in duplicate (n = 200/group; 2-way ANOVA, Sidak's 1059 1060 multiple comparisons test, p < 0.05). Data reported as means ± SD. B) Examples for 1061 morphological assessments. Scale bar: 500 µm.



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1063 Figure 4. Motor-behavioral modifications in zebrafish larvae exposed to a dose range pesticide cocktail. A) Examples of 30-minute swimming paths for each 1064 experimental group; B) Distance (H₄=28.13, p<0.0001); C) Average velocity 1065 (H₄=28.25, p<0.0001); **D)** Maximum velocity (F=6.502, p<0.0001); **E)** Body mobility 1066 1067 (H₄=32.56, p<0.0001); **F)** Rotation clockwise (H₄=9.384, p=0.0522); **G)** Rotation counterclockwise ($H_4 = 8.298$, p=0.0812); **H)** Heading center-point (H_4 =4.011, 1068 p=0.4045); I) Angular velocity (H₄=1.695, p=0.7916); J) Meander (H₄=2.329, 1069 p=0.6756). Results are reported as box and whiskers plots with single points and 1070 indicating median, interguartile ranges and min-max range. Experiments conducted 1071 in duplicate (CTR n=270; 0.1 µg/L n=112; 0.5 µg/L n=57; 1 µg/L n=82; 10µg/L n=37). 1072 1073



Figure 5. Neurovascular structures of zebrafish are generally preserved after 1075 exposure to the pesticide cocktail. A) Z-stack reconstructions of fli1a:GFP 1076 zebrafish showing brain vasculature in green for CTR and (A1) 10 µg/L (a behavior-1077 modifying concentration, see Figure 4) cocktail pesticide (A1). Scale bar: 30 µm. The 1078 studied area is delimited by a white dashed semi-circle. B) Examples of Imaris 3D 1079 skeleton reconstruction of the midbrain vasculature in CTR and (B1) 10 µg/L cocktail 1080 pesticide. Scale bar: 30 µm. C) Z-stack images of a pan-neuronal HuC:tomato 1081 zebrafish for CTR and (C1) 10 µg/L cocktail pesticide. OT: optic tectum, ON: optic 1082 nerve, HP: hindbrain axon projection. Dashed lines with arrows indicate the 1083 structures quantified: yellow (length of the 1st hindbrain axon projection), green 1084 (length of the optic nerve) and blue (thickness of the optic nerve). Scale bar: 40 µm. 1085

D) Quantification of the total vasculature length (Mann-Whitney test, p=0.1449), experiments conducted in duplicate (CTR n=15, 10 µg/L n=10); E) Quantification of the ON length (Mann-Whitney test, p=0.8891), experiments conducted in duplicate (CTR n=10, 10 µg/L n=5); F) quantification of the ON thickness (Mann-Whitney test, p=0.7105), experiments conducted in duplicate (CTR n=10, 10 µg/L n=5); G) 1st hindbrain extension (Mann-Whitney test, p=0.2601), experiments conducted in duplicate (CTR n=10, 10 μ g/L n=5).

1119 Table 1. Food (g/day/mouse) and water (ml/day/mouse) intake during mating

and pregnancy.

			Week 1	(mating)	Week 2 (gestation)	Week 3 (gestation)	Week 4 (gestation)
			CTRL	PESTI	CTRL	PESTI	CTRL	PESTI	CTRL	PESTI
	0D ()	Mean (±SD)	5,34 (±0.43)	5,34 (±0.67)	4,07 (±1.27)	4,19 (±0.37)	4,61 (±0.46)	4,18 (±0.67)	4,15 (±1,64)	3,90 (±2.36)
	Ŭ Ĵ	P-values	0.95	5812	0.2	268	0.2	606	0.3978	
	ER (Mean (±SD)	6,47 (±0.96)	5,90 (±0.51)	6,56 (±0.33)	5,78 (±0.50)	10,76 (±4.66)	6,18 (±1.24)	9,33 (±4.45)	7,94 (±2.14)
	WAT (ml	<i>P</i> -values	0.18		0.00)741	0.42	2067	0.69)854
112	1									
112	2									
1123	3									
1124	4									
112	5									
112	6									
112	7									
112	8									
1129	9									
113	0									
113	1									
113	2									
113	3									
1134	4									
113	5									
113	6									
113	7									
113	8									
1139	9									
114	0									
114	1									
114	2									
114	3									
114	4									

Table 2. At the structural level, glial and pericyte-capillaries are generally preserved. No significant differences exist between pesticides exposed and agedmatched control diet mice. Data refer to male animals, where neurological changes occur long-term (see also Figures 1 and 2). Non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was used. CA: cornu ammonis, DG: dentate gyrus, WM: white matter, CTX: somatosensory cortex).

WT PEST WT P n 6 8 7 CA3 Mean 8.577 7.763 13.123 12 SD 3.214 2.229 2.646 1	EST 8 2.208 .945 3.945
n 6 8 7 CA3 Mean 8.577 7.763 13.123 12 SD 3.214 2.229 2.646 1	8 2.208 .945 3.945
CA3 Mean 8.577 7.763 13.123 12 SD 3.214 2.229 2.646 1	2.208 .945 3.945
SD 3 214 2 229 2 646 1	.945 3.945
	3.945
P-values 0.64297 0.32321	3.945
CA1 Mean 7.608 7.528 12.859 13	
A SD 2.537 1.487 1.928 1	.677
0 9 9 9	
DG Mean 12.477 9.662 14.358 16	6.506
SD 4.610 2.750 3.323 2	.304
P-values 0.09934 0.10858	
<u>ه</u> WM Mean 8.539 8.802 13.495 14	1.287
SD 2.564 2.433 2.951 3	.091
P-values 0.67832 0.46276	
CTX Mean 0.585 0.830 1.358 1	.258
SD 0.730 1.027 0.827 0	.788
P-values 0.7781 0.57681	
CA3 Mean 1054.334 1005.660 1282.064 115	58.651
D 293.744 258.223 292.065 24	7.557
P-values 0.72771 0.25296	
CA1 Mean 950.786 936.182 1587.720 140	0.617
SD 152.363 208.722 543.064 26	9.139
C P-values 0.59343 0.32861	
Б DG Mean 1115.695 1187.384 1613.480 134	18.747
5 SD 201.621 286.891 376.880 28	8.251
P-values 0.41655 0.07573	
WM Mean 927.078 845.637 914.180 86	7.817

	SD	186.723	206.880	388.758	240.635
	P-values	0.39	043	0.85	5161
CTX	Mean	1183.856	1008.267	1450.880	1430.572
	SD	321.621	257.484	440.657	187.208
	P-values	0.13136		0.46	6933

Table 3. Motor-behavior outcomes in zebrafish exposed to a dose-range (0.1 to 1178 **10.000 µg/L) of individual pesticides**. **A)** Boscalid (CTR n=154, 0.1 µg/L n=110, 0.5 1179 μg/L n=59, 1 μg/L n=95, 10 μg/L n=60, 100 μg/L n=40; 1000 μg/L n=40) **B)** Captan 1180 (CTR n=213, 0.1 µg/L n=70, 0.5 µg/L n=50, 1 µg/L n=89, 10 µg/L n=18, 100 µg/L 1181 n=24), C) Chlorpyrifos (CTR n=265, 0.1 µg/L n=109, 0.5 µg/L n=60, 1 µg/L n=118, 10 1182 μg/L n=59, 100 μg/L n=21; 1000 μg/L n=49), D) Thiophanate (CTR n=188, 0.1 μg/L 1183 n=99, 0.5 µg/L n=40, 1 µg/L n=97, 10 µg/L n=40, 100 µg/L n=40; 1000 µg/L n=40, 1184 10.000 µg/L n=39), E) Thiacloprid (CTR n=286, 0.1 µg/L n=116, 0.5 µg/L n=57, 1 1185 μg/L n=116, 10 μg/L n=60, 100 μg/L n=60; 1000 μg/L n=60, 10.000 μg/L n=58), **F**) 1186 Ziram (CTR n=218, 0.1 µg/L n=87, 0.5 µg/L n=50, 1 µg/L n=87, 10 µg/L n=39). Data 1187 reported as mean ± SD (1-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison 1188 test, or Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test, p<0.05). 1189

A- BOSCALID										
	CTRL	0.1	0.5	1	10	100	1000	10000		
Distance	100 ± 33	89 ± 36	78 ± 30 ***	85 ± 29 *	117 ± 45	113 ± 41	118 ± 43	-		
Velocity (mean)	100 ± 33	90 ± 38	78 ± 30 ***	86 ± 31 *	117 ± 45	118 ± 46	120 ± 44	-		
Velocity (max.)	100 ± 20	94 ± 17	98 ± 18	97 ± 19	91 ± 19 **	91 ± 20	90 ± 17*	-		
Body mobility	100 ± 39	87 ± 39	73 ± 28 ****	83 ± 33*	122 ± 50*	125 ± 54	128 ± 56	-		
Rotation (clockwise)	100 ± 29	104 ± 32	104 ± 35	97 ± 39	111 ± 31	109 ± 33	111 ± 31	-		
Rotation (counter)	100 ± 29	104 ± 32	100 ± 34	98 ± 39	113 ± 32 *	112 ± 35	112 ± 31	-		
Heading center	100 ± 1353	156 ± 1755	157 ± 361	187 ± 1670	-23 ± 2187	-1067 ± 1746 ***	-351 ± 2090	-		
Angular velocity	100 ± 579	-7 ± 635	403 ± 1024	1 ± 626	41 ± 322	-25 ± 357	-25 ± 394	-		
Meander	100 ± 1789	143 ± 1844	1208 ± 2724	152 ± 1353	37 ± 579	13 ± 447	-59 ± 621	-		
				B- CAPTAN	l					
	CTRL	0.1	0.5	1	10	100	1000	10000		
Distance	100 ± 38	98 ± 39	95 ± 38	102 ± 42	51 ± 16 ****	82 ± 40	-	-		
Velocity (mean)	100 ± 38	98 ± 39	95 ± 38	102 ± 42	57 ± 29 ****	81 ± 41	-	-		
Velocity (max.)	100 ± 20	97 ± 18	101 ± 21	97 ± 18	88 ± 8 *	89 ± 14	-	-		
Body	100 ± 44	101 ± 43	102 ± 41	105 ± 44	51 ± 26 ****	76 ± 36	-	-		

mobility									
Rotation (clockwise)	100 ± 31	110 ± 32 *	111 ± 34	119 ± 34	93 ± 23	100 ± 56	-	-	
Rotation (counter)	100 ± 30	110 ± 33 *	113 ± 32 *	121 ± 34 ****	98 ± 27	100 ± 56	-	-	
Heading center	100 ± 844.7	21 ± 1181	68 ± 236	271 ± 1237	-474.4 ± 1791	18 ± 1708	-	-	
Angular velocity	100 ± 3442	-132 ± 3443	486 ± 4498	-179 ± 3120	-14 ± 1083	355 ± 614	-	-	
Meander	100 ± 4063	-69 ± 3850	-865 ± 5538	611 ± 3633	-21 ± 367	150 ± 361	-	-	
C- CHLORPYRIFOS									
	CTRL	0.1	0.5	1	10	100	1000	10000	
Distance	100 ± 44	75 ± 46 ****	81 ± 39 **	81 ± 39 **	89 ± 35	77 ± 54	73 ± 33 ***	-	
Velocity (mean)	100 ± 44	75 ± 46 ****	78 ± 40 **	81 ± 39 **	89 ± 35	77 ± 54	73 ± 33***	-	
Velocity (max.)	100 ± 24	92 ± 24 *	82 ± 29 ****	90 ± 29 *	99 ± 25	94 ± 34	93 ± 28 *	-	
Body mobility	100 ± 49	75 ± 57 ****	77 ± 40 **	78 ± 44 ****	72 ± 35 ***	85 ± 75 **	61 ± 31 ****	-	
Rotation (clockwise)	100 ± 33	83 ± 40 ***	94 ± 31	95 ± 43	99 ± 29	70 ± 56 **	80 ± 28 **	-	
Rotation (counter)	100 ± 32	84 ± 41 ***	94 ± 29	97 ± 44	99 ± 29	71 ± 57 **	82 ± 27 **	-	
Heading center	100 ± 1439	-73 ± 1811	540 ± 2124	248 ± 1485	84 ± 670	31 ± 843	99 ± 719	-	
Angular velocity	100 ± 1305	-142 ± 1658	-153 ± 1742	-51 ± 1340	103 ± 1132	-341 ± 1195	-158 ± 1207	-	
Meander	100 ± 1147	-55 ± 1164	107 ± 1330	13 ± 1181	9 ± 455	14 ± 443	-25 ± 453	-	
				D- THIOPHAN	ATE				
	CTRL	0.1	0.5	1	10	100	1000	10000	
Distance	100 ± 47	102 ± 49	96 ± 30	87 ± 36	66 ± 33 ****	65 ± 24 ***	100 ± 26	57 ± 32 ****	
Velocity (mean)	100 ± 47	100 ± 48	94 ± 30	85 ± 36	66 ± 33 ****	67 ± 31 **	100 ± 26	56 ± 32 ****	
Velocity (max.)	100 ± 22	107 ± 24	114 ± 26 *	111 ± 23 **	108 ± 19	105 ± 20	112 ± 26	80 ± 22 ***	
Body mobility	100 ± 48	101 ± 55	97 ± 30	87 ± 39	74 ± 50 **	88 ± 58	103 ± 38	71 ± 64 ****	
Rotation (clockwise)	100 ± 38	97 ± 31	114 ± 32	93 ± 37	67 ± 33 ****	84 ± 36	103 ± 30	56 ± 39 ****	
Rotation (counter)	100 ± 38	95 ± 30	111 ± 30	92 ± 35	67 ± 32 ****	85 ± 36	100 ± 32	56 ± 36 ****	
Heading center	100 ± 664	-27 ± 566	98 ± 487	-9 ± 648	79 ± 844	81 ± 856	119 ± 837	-71 ± 818	
Angular velocity	100 ± 1179	-132 ± 1097	237 ± 749	-57 ± 1281	-125 ± 1711	69 ± 1475	-255 ± 1734	-83 ± 1799	

Meander	100 ± 2853	395 ± 3337	302 ± 2070	161 ± 3069	539 ± 2787	-338 ± 3269	259 ± 4645	-150 ± 1858				
	E- THIACLOPRID											
	CTRL	0.1	0.5	1	10	100	1000	10000				
Distance	100 ± 45	82 ± 33 **	73 ± 40 ****	86 ± 43 **	72 ± 24 ***	73 ± 39 ***	90 ± 43	94 ± 34				
Velocity (mean)	100 ± 45	82 ± 33 **	73 ± 40 ****	86 ± 43 **	72 ± 24 ***	73 ± 39 ***	90 ± 42	96 ± 39				
Velocity (max.)	100 ± 22	100 ± 26	101 ± 23	97 ± 22	95 ± 21	98 ± 23	97 ± 23	103 ± 24				
Body mobility	100 ± 46	87 ± 40	74 ± 45 ****	84 ± 44 **	79 ± 35 **	87 ± 50 *	90 ± 43	102 ± 48				
Rotation (clockwise)	100 ± 33	95 ± 32	83 ± 33 **	101 ± 37	97 ± 31	82 ± 35 ***	98 ± 27	108 ± 30				
Rotation (counter)	100 ± 33	97 ± 33	82 ± 33 **	99 ± 35	96 ± 31	82 ± 36 ***	97 ± 28	109 ± 31				
Heading center	100 ± 1412	140 ± 1576	431 ± 1914	-101 ± 1617	110 ± 723	-99 ± 814	-46 ± 777	72 ± 769				
Angular velocity	100 ± 1378	41 ± 1304	1 ± 1663	173 ± 1463	66 ± 1200	-76 ± 1110	156 ± 1436	111 ± 1153				
Meander	100 ± 2316	-64 ± 1885	-167 ± 1495	281 ± 2344	390 ± 3022	144 ± 2633	93 ± 2946	-71 ± 2653				
		·	·	F- ZIRAM	·							
	CTRL	0.1	0.5	1	10	100	1000	10000				
Distance	100 ± 34	100 ± 31	70 ± 34 ****	75 ± 32 ****	71 ± 52 **	-	-	-				
Velocity (mean)	100 ± 34	100 ± 31	70 ± 34 ****	75 ± 32 ****	71 ± 52 **	-	-	-				
Velocity (max.)	100 ± 19	99 ± 17	99 ± 18	97 ± 18	79 ± 20 ****	-	-	-				
Body mobility	100 ± 38	108 ± 39	73 ± 37 ****	76 ± 35 ****	77 ± 57 *	-	-	-				
Rotation (clockwise)	100 ± 30	128 ± 29	82 ± 38 *	95 ± 34	82 ± 47	-	-	-				
Rotation (counter)	100 ± 29	128 ± 30	82 ± 39 *	96 ± 32	83 ± 48	-	-	-				
Heading center	100 ± 529	82 ± 671	57 ± 255	-77 ± 800	3.8 ± 1023	-	-	-				
Angular velocity	100 ± 3392	-82 ± 2910	332 ± 4493	464 ± 3394	-81 ± 813	-	-	-				
Meander	100 ± 4028	268 ± 3816	-363 ± 4777	109 ± 3066	14 ± 376	-	-	-				





Supplemental Figure 1. Perinatal exposure to dietary pesticides does not alter behavior in adult female mice. The panels indicate the behavioral parameters measured. Open field test and locomotor activity: (A) speed, (B) distance travelled, (C) time spent in the center zone and (D) immobility time in the open field test. *Elevated-plus maze* (EPM): (E) Time spent and (F) number of entries in the open arms during the EPM test. *Light/Dark box*: (G) time spent in the light zone, (H) time

per entry and (I) number of entries in the light zone. Y-Maze test (working memory): (J) number of entries and (K) percentage of spontaneous alternation in the Y-Maze. Rotarod (procedural and motor learning): (L) Latency of fall (s) following a training period of 5 days. 12 female control and 10 female pesticide exposed mice were used. Data are analyzed using the non-parametric Kruskal-Willis ANOVA: (A) H₃=9.66, p=0.0217, (**B**) $H_3=9.608$, p=0.0222, (**C**) $H_3=0.1231$, p=0.9889, (**D**) $H_3=10.3$, p=0.0162, (E) $H_3=11.17$, p=0.0108, (F) $H_3=20.94$, p=0.0001, (G) $H_3=0.6544$, p=0.8839, (**H**) H₃=4.026, p=0.2587, (**I**) H₃=5.957, p=0.1137, (**J**) H₃=1.96, p=0.5807, (K) H₃=1.142, p=0.7670, (L) H₃=0.6178, p=0.8924. The Dunn's test was used for multiple comparisons between groups (Ctr 2m vs Pesticides 2m; Ctr 14m vs Pesticides 14m): not significant for all panels, p>0.05.





Supplemental Figure 2. Longitudinal electroencephalographic monitoring in freely moving female mice prenatally exposed to pesticide cocktail. A-A3) No significant electroencephalographic modifications (e.g., spike activity) are reported in female mice prenatally exposed to pesticide cocktail. **B-B1**) Examples of EEG data acquired during awake/exploration periods. No robust changes were recorded longterm at 14 months.

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1258	Supplemental Figure 3. Lack of major structural brain malformations long-term.
1259	A-A3) Histological examples of GFAP astrocytes and DAPI cell distributions in the
1260	dorsal hippocampus. See Table 2 for quantifications and statistics.
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Supplemental Figure 4. No structural muscle differences exist between control
and pesticides exposed zebrafish. Lateral views of trunk somites in zebrafish
larvae stained with phalloidin. Examples of CTR (A), 10 µg/L cocktail pesticide (A1).
Dashed lines with arrows indicated the length of a typical fiber measured. No
significant changes were observed (quantifications are provided in the Results).
Experiments conducted in duplicate (n=10/group). Scale bar: 50 µm.

Supplemental Table 1. Chemical families, functions, and tolerable daily intake (TDI)
of each pesticide. Expected and measured pesticide concentrations (µg/kg food) in
the food pellets. Adapted from Smith et. al 2020.

Pesticide name	Chemical family	Function	Tolerable Daily Intake	Expected quantity ^a	Determined level
			(mg/kg BW/day)	(µg/kg food)	(µg/kg food)
Ziram	Dithiocarbamate	Fungicide	0.006	36	ND ^b
Chlorpyrifos	Organophosphorus	Insecticide	0.01	60	57
Thiacloprid	Neonicotinoid	Insecticide	0.01	60	63
Boscalid	Carboxamide	Fungicide	0.04	240	200
Thiofanate	Benzimidazole	Fungicide	0.08	480	260
Captan	Dicarboximide	Fungicide	0.1	600	230

1292 Note: BW, Body weight; ND, not determined; (http://www.agritox.anses.fr/).

^a Expected quantity refers to the incorporated quantities of pesticides in mice pellets.

^b Ziram was not present at a detectible level (< 0.01 mg/kg).

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