

1 **Investigating autism associated genes in *C. elegans* reveals candidates with a role in social**
2 **behaviour**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder characterised by a triad of
11 behavioural impairments and includes disruption in social behaviour. ASD has a clear genetic
12 underpinning and hundreds of genes are implicated in its aetiology. However, how single
13 penetrant genes disrupt activity of neural circuits which lead to affected behaviours is only
14 beginning to be understood and less is known about how low penetrant genes interact to
15 disrupt emergent behaviours. Investigations are well served by experimental approaches that
16 allow tractable investigation of the underpinning genetic basis of circuits that control
17 behaviours that operate in the biological domains that are neuro-atypical in autism. The
18 model organism *C. elegans* provides an experimental platform to investigate the effect of
19 genetic mutations on behavioural outputs including those that impact social biology. Here we
20 use progeny-derived social cues that modulate *C. elegans* food leaving to assay genetic
21 determinants of social behaviour. We used the SAFRI Gene database to identify *C. elegans*
22 orthologues of human ASD associated genes. We identified a number of mutants that
23 displayed selective deficits in response to progeny. The genetic determinants of this complex
24 social behaviour highlight the important contribution of synaptopathy and implicates genes
25 within cell signalling, epigenetics and phospholipid metabolism functional domains. The
26 approach overlaps with a growing number of studies that investigate potential molecular
27 determinants of autism in *C. elegans*. However, our use of a complex, sensory integrative,
28 emergent behaviour provides routes to enrich new or underexplored biology with the
29 identification of novel candidate genes with a definable role in social behaviour.

30 **Introduction**

31 Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a pervasive neurodevelopmental behavioural disorder.
32 ASD is characterised by a triad of behavioural impairments, these being repetitive
33 behaviours and impairment to verbal and social communication [1]. Neuro-atypical
34 individuals have been shown to produce altered behavioural outputs in response to a range
35 of sensory cues [2], including chemosensory cues that drive social behaviours [3].
36 Impairment within the integration of sensory stimuli is thought to underlie the altered
37 perception of such cues [4]. This highlights the importance of neural circuits in the
38 processing of sensory information to coordinate a behavioural output in the social domain
39 [5].

40 It is well established that there is a strong genetic contribution in autism [6]. The genetic
41 architecture of ASD is complex with hundreds of genes of varying penetrance implicated in
42 its aetiology [7]. This is complicated further by the interplay between genetic variants in the
43 form of rare, highly penetrant, and common low penetrant variants [8, 9]. Common variants
44 attribute polygenic risk in ASD with mutations to multiple loci having additive effects on a
45 given phenotype [8]. The burden of common variants in an individual's genetic background
46 can influence the degree of risk a rare variant can impose [9]. The combinatorial effect of
47 rare and common variants contributes to the spectrum of phenotypes displayed across
48 autism cases [10].

49 ASD associated genes span across a range of biological functions, for example synaptic, cell
50 signalling and epigenetic modification [11]. Evidence suggests that although ASD genes are
51 functionally diverse they are connected through protein interaction networks [12] and
52 control processes such as neuronal morphology and synaptic function that modulate the
53 activity state of neural networks [8, 13, 14]. This means that the consequence of even a

54 single genetic variant can be widespread through inter-connecting gene networks and have
55 emergent effects on neural circuits [8]. For many ASD associated genes it is still unclear how
56 they function in neural networks which underpin behavioural phenotypes [15], such as
57 disrupted social and motor behaviour. However, investigating determinants of defined
58 neural circuits underpinning autism associated neuro-atypical behaviour is providing
59 traction for discreet investigation of complex traits. Study of distinct behaviours in mice has
60 begun to unpick the effect of genetic disruption on molecular circuits and synapse function
61 [16-18]. Additionally, the impact of genetic variation on a number of synaptic genes has
62 been extensively studied in various animal models [19-24].

63 Animal models highlight the value of using orthologues to understand the function of ASD
64 associated genes in behavioural domains associated with autism [25-28]. *C. elegans*
65 provides a tractable system that allows for the high throughput of genetic determinants to
66 be investigated in a simple nervous system [29]. Conservation of genes involved in synapse
67 function and the use of integrative neurons highlights the utility of *C. elegans* neuronal
68 function and how it co-ordinates complex sensory integrative behaviours that model the
69 disruptions that are expressed through genetic mutations associated with autism [30, 31].
70 The genetic homology between the *C. elegans* and mammalian genome [32], and the fact
71 that mutant strains are widely accessible, means that the *C. elegans* model lends itself to
72 the systems level analysis of disease associated genes. This has led to a plethora of studies
73 using single gene analysis to investigate the impact of genetic mutation to ASD associated
74 gene orthologues on behavioural output [33]. As well as this, *C. elegans* have been utilised
75 in multiple high-throughput screens which have largely used morphological and locomotory
76 readouts to screen for behavioural deficit [34-36].

77 Behavioural output in response to integration of sensory cues can be assayed in *C. elegans*
78 by way of food leaving behaviour. The propensity of a worm to leave a lawn of bacterial
79 food can be modulated by multiple sensory cues [37]. It has been shown that in the
80 presence of increasing numbers of progeny, adult worms will leave an otherwise replete
81 food lawn in a dose-dependent manor. This progeny-dependent food leaving behaviour is
82 the result of inter-organismal communication and is thought to be underpinned by a novel
83 social circuit [38]. The utility of this social paradigm to probe autism related dysfunction was
84 demonstrated by showing that when a penetrant mutation of human neuroligin is
85 introduced into the worm orthologue, *nlg-1*, it results in disrupted progeny induced food
86 leaving behaviour [39].

87 We have used this bona fide social paradigm to investigate genetic determinants associated
88 with human ASD. Investigation of *C. elegans* orthologues in a subset of candidate genes
89 identified a number that disrupt a social behavioural paradigm in the worm. Furthermore,
90 we show that whilst a large proportion of mutants displayed behavioural deficit in the social
91 domain, there was limited disruption to the other phenotypes investigated suggesting a
92 selective behavioural deficit. Identification of novel candidate genes in this way has also
93 highlighted key biological functional domains that appear to play an important role in social
94 behaviour, therefore shedding light on the functional contribution ASD associated genes
95 may have on the disrupted phenotypes associated with this disorder.

96 **Materials and methods**

97 **Prioritising ASD associated genes for study in *C. elegans***

98 To identify genes associated with ASD we used SFARI Gene Archive (<http://gene->
99 archive.sfari.org/, version 3.0). Within this database the Human Gene Module ([5](https://gene-</p></div><div data-bbox=)

100 archive.sfari.org/database/human-gene/) ranks genes from 1-6 based on the evidence
101 supporting the gene's association with ASD. Genes in category 1-High confidence and
102 category 2-Strong candidate were selected for analysis due to the fact that data implicating
103 those genes in ASD reach genome wide significance and there is evidence for the variant
104 having a functional effect in humans. Orthologous genes in *C. elegans* were identified by
105 searching the human gene name in WormBase (<https://wormbase.org/>, version WS264) and
106 using the human gene Ensembl ID in OrthoList (<http://www.greenwalddlab.org/ortholist/>). *C.*
107 *elegans* strains available for order from the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Centre (CGC) and/or
108 the National BioResource Project (NBRP) were prioritised for investigation. Using
109 information gathered from WormBase, CGC, NBRP and a literature review, mutants were
110 excluded if they were lethal, sterile or uncoordinated. Thus, we filtered for candidates best
111 suited to investigation in the food lawn based assay. The prioritised *C. elegans* mutant
112 strains for study can be found in Table 1. Genes were ascribed to one of five functional
113 categories: synaptic, neuronal, cell signalling, epigenetic modifiers and phospholipid
114 metabolism based on their function described by UniProtKB
115 (<https://www.uniprot.org/uniprot/>). Genes described as having a role in synaptic
116 transmission, structure, activity or plasticity were categorised as 'synaptic'. Genes with a
117 role in neuronal excitability or adhesion were categorised as 'neuronal'. Genes described as
118 having a predominant role in cell signalling pathways were categorised as 'cell signalling'.
119 Genes with a role in transcriptional regulation or chromatin remodelling were categorised as
120 'epigenetic modifier'. The gene MBOAT7 is described as functioning in phospholipid
121 metabolism and so was categorised as 'phospholipid metabolism'.

122 **Table 1: Summary of human genes prioritised for study in *C. elegans* mutant strains**

123

Human gene	Gene name	Protein function	<i>C. elegans</i> orthologue	Allele	Strain name	Out-crossed	Mutation	Mutation effect	Behavioural phenotype	Gene expression
Synaptic										
GRIA1	Glutamate ionotropic receptor AMPA type subunit 1	Glutamate receptor	<i>glr-1</i>	<i>n2461</i>	KP4	4	Nonsense mutation in codon 807 [40]	LOF [40]	Defective local search behaviour [41]	AVA,AVB, AVD,AVE, PVC,AIB,RMD, RIM,SMD,AVG PVQ,URY [41]
			<i>glr-2</i>	<i>tm669</i>	FX00669	0	Complex substitution [42]	Unpublished	Enhanced gustatory plasticity [43]	AVA,AVD,AVE PVC,RMDV, RMDD,AIA, AIB,AVG,RIG, RIA,M1 [44]
			<i>glr-2</i>	<i>ok2342</i>	RB1808	0	Deletion [42]	Unpublished	Unknown	
GRIN2B	Glutamate Ionotropic Receptor NMDA Type Subunit 2B	NMDA receptor	<i>nmr-2</i>	<i>ok3324</i>	VC2623	1	Deletion [42]	LOF [34]	Reduced swimming locomotion [34]	AVA,AVD,AVE, RIM,AVG, PVC [44]
			<i>nmr-2</i>	<i>tm3785</i>	FX03785	0	Deletion [42]	LOF [45]	Impaired learning [46]	
NLGN3	Neuroigin 3	Synaptic adhesion	<i>nlg-1</i>	<i>ok259</i>	VC228	6	Deletion to half of cholinesterase-like domain and TMD [22]	Null [22]	Reduced spontaneous reversals [22] Reduced pharyngeal pumping [47]	VA,DA,AIY, URB,URA, PVD,HSN,ADE,URX, AVJ, ALA [22, 47]
NRXN1	Neurexin 1	Synaptic adhesion	<i>nrx-1</i>	<i>ds1</i>	SG1	3	Deletion in the long <i>nrx-1</i> isoform [48]	Unpublished	Unknown	Nervous system, GABAergic neurons [49, 50]
			<i>nrx-1</i>	<i>tm1961</i>	FX01961	0	Deletion in the long <i>nrx-1</i> isoform [48]	Truncated protein [24]	Deficient gentle touch response [24]	
PTCHD1	Patched domain containing 1	Synaptic receptor	<i>ptr-5</i>	<i>gk472</i>	VC1067	0	Deletion [42]	Unpublished	Unknown	Unknown
SHANK 2/3	SH3 and multiple ankyrin repeat domains	Synaptic scaffold	<i>shn-1</i>	<i>ok1241</i>	RB1196	0	Deletion covering PDZ domain and	LOF [51]	None reported [51]	Widely expressed [52]

							proline rich motif [51]			
			<i>shn-1</i>	<i>gk181</i>	VC376	0	Deletion covering most of ANK repeat and entire PDZ domain [51]	LOF [51]	Unknown	
SLC6A1	Solute carrier family 6 member 1	GABA transporter	<i>snf-11</i>	<i>ok156</i>	RM2710	6	Deletion [53]	Putative null [53]	None reported [53]	AVL,RIBR,ALA, RIBL,GLRV, RME,AVF,EF1, EF2,EF3,EF4, Body wall muscle [54]
			<i>snf-11</i>	<i>tm625</i>	FX00625	0	Deletion and insertion [53]	Putative null [53]	Unknown	
SYNGAP1	Synaptic Ras GTPase activating protein 1	Ras GTPase activating protein	<i>gap-2</i>	<i>tm748</i>	JN147	0	Complex substitution [42]	LOF [55]	No effect on body bends [55]	Widely expressed [55]
			<i>gap-2</i>	<i>ok1001</i>	VC680	0	Complex substitution [42]	Unpublished	Unknown	
Neuronal										
CACNA1H	Calcium voltage-gated channel subunit Alpha1 H	Calcium channel	<i>cca-1</i>	<i>ad1650</i>	JD21	7	Deletion [56]	LOF [56]	Reduced pharyngeal pumping [56]	Pharyngeal muscle, neurons in pharynx and VNC [56]
CNTN4	Contactin 4	Axonal adhesion	<i>rig-6</i>	<i>ok1589</i>	VC1125	0	Deletion [57]	Hypo-morphic [57]	None reported [57]	Widely expressed in nervous system [58]
			<i>rig-6</i>	<i>gk376</i>	VC884	0	Deletion-knocks down expression of isoform a only [57]	Hypo-morphic [57]	Unknown	
Cell signalling										

DYRK1A	Dual specificity tyrosine phosphorylation regulated kinase 1A	Protein kinase	<i>hpk-1</i>	<i>pk1393</i>	EK273	6	Deletion to most of kinase domain [59]	Null [59]	Reduced lifespan [59]	Gonad, nervous system – not otherwise specified [59]
			<i>mbk-1</i>	<i>pk1389</i>	EK228	6	Deletion to most of kinase domain [60]	Putative null [60]	Reduced lifespan [60]	Somatic tissue, not otherwise specified [61]
			<i>mbk-1</i>	<i>ok402</i>	RB677	0	Unknown	Unknown	Reduced swimming locomotion [34]	
PTEN	Phosphatase and tensin homolog	Protein phosphatase	<i>daf-18</i>	<i>e1375</i>	CB1375	0	Insertion [62]	Reduction of function [62]	Chemotaxis deficit [63]	Widely expressed [64]
			<i>daf-18</i>	<i>ok480</i>	RB712	0	Deletion [65]	Putative null [65]	Abnormal mitotic arrest in dauer [66]	
Epigenetic Modifiers										
CHD8	Chromodomain helicase DNA binding protein 8	Transcription factor	<i>chd-7</i>	<i>gk290</i>	VC606	0	Deletion [42]	Unpublished	Reduced swimming locomotion [34]	Unknown
			<i>chd-7</i>	<i>gk306</i>	VC676	0	Deletion [42]	Unpublished	Impaired habituation [36]	
FOXP1	Forkhead box P1	Transcription factor	<i>fkh-7</i>	<i>gk793</i>	VC1646	0	Deletion [42]	Unpublished	Unknown	Widely expressed [67]
IRF2BPL	Interferon regulatory factor 2 binding protein like	Transcription factor	<i>tag-260</i>	<i>ok1339</i>	VC812	0	Insertion [42]	Putative null [68]	Unknown	Unknown
KDM6A	Lysine-specific demethylase 6A	Histone demethylase	<i>jmjd-3.1</i>	<i>gk387</i>	VC912	0	Deletion [42]	Unpublished	Unknown	PDA motor neuron and Y cell [69]
			<i>jmjd-3.1</i>	<i>gk384</i>	VC936	0	Insertion [42]	Null [70]	Unknown	
KMT5B	Lysine methyltransferase 5B	Transcription factor	<i>set-4</i>	<i>n4600</i>	MT14911	2	Deletion [71]	LOF [71]	Deficient dauer arrest [71]	Nervous system, not otherwise specified [71]

			<i>set-4</i>	<i>ok1481</i>	VC997	0	Deletion [71]	LOF [71]	Deficient dauer arrest [71]	
SETD2	Histone-lysine N-methyltransferase SETD2	Transcriptional regulation	<i>met-1</i>	<i>n4337</i>	MT16973	4	Deletion [72]	LOF [73]	Sterility at 25°C [72]	Broadly expressed [74]
			<i>met-1</i>	<i>tm1738</i>	FX01738	0	Deletion [72]	Putative null [72]	Sterility at 25°C [72]	
SETD5	Histone-lysine N-methyltransferase SETD5	Transcriptional regulation	<i>set-26</i>	<i>tm3526</i>	FX03526	0	Deletion [42]	Putative null [75]	None reported [75]	Widely expressed [76]
			<i>set-24</i>	<i>n4909</i>	MT16133	0	Unknown [42]	Unknown	None reported [77]	Germline specific [74]
			<i>set-9</i>	<i>n4949</i>	MT16426	1	Deletion [42]	Putative null [75]	None reported [77]	Germline specific [76]
Phospholipid metabolism										
MBOAT7	Membrane bound O-acyltransferase domain containing 7	Acetyl transferase	<i>mboa-7</i>	<i>ok1028</i>	RB1071	0	Deletion [78]	LOF [78]	Unknown	Muscle, vulva, intestine [79]
			<i>mboa-7</i>	<i>gk399</i>	VC942	0	Deletion [78]	LOF [78]	Egg laying deficit [79]	
			<i>mboa-7</i>	<i>tm3536</i>	FX03536	0	Deletion [78]	LOF [78]	Developmental defects [78]	
			<i>mboa-7</i>	<i>tm3645</i>	FX03645	0	Deletion [78]	LOF [78]	Unknown	

124 **Human genes were used to ascribe functional domains. For each human gene the *C. elegans* orthologue used for investigation is listed and the mutant**
 125 **allele, known phenotypes and expression of the gene indicated. LOF stands for loss of function. AA stands for amino acids. TMD stands for**
 126 **transmembrane domain. LNS stands for laminin-neurexin-sex hormone-binding globulin. References are indicated.**

127 ***C. elegans* culturing and strains used**

128 All *C. elegans* strains were maintained using standard conditions [80]. *C. elegans* were age
129 synchronised by picking L4 hermaphrodites onto a new plate 18 hours prior to behavioural
130 assays. Bristol N2 were used as wild-type control. All other strains used can be found in
131 Table 1. Strains were obtained from either the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center or National
132 BioResource Project.

133 **Food leaving Assay**

134 5cm NGM (nematode growth medium) plates were prepared using a standard protocol [80].
135 50µl of OP50 *E. coli* at OD₆₀₀ of 0.8 was gently spotted on the middle of an unseeded plate.
136 Approximately 18 hours following this, seven L4+1 day old hermaphrodites were picked
137 onto the centre of the bacterial lawn. Plates were then incubated at 20°C for 24 hours. In all
138 food leaving assays the number of food leaving events were counted manually during a 30
139 minute observation period using a binocular dissecting microscope (Nikon SMZ800; X10). A
140 food leaving event was defined as when the whole of the worm's body came off the
141 bacterial food lawn, as previously described [39]. Following each food leaving assay the %
142 proportion of eggs, L1 and L2 progeny on the plate was calculated. For all food leaving
143 assays N2 and *nlg-1(ok259)* animals were analysed in parallel to other mutant cohorts.
144 Investigators were blind to the genotypes being observed.

145 **Pre-conditioned food leaving assay**

146 NGM plates were prepared and seeded as described above. 18 hours after seeding assay
147 plates, half were pre-conditioned with progeny using the protocol described previously [38]
148 and the remaining plates were used as matched unconditioned controls. In the

149 preconditioned plates 10 gravid adults were picked onto the centre of the bacterial lawn
150 and left to lay 140-200 eggs before being picked off. 18 hours after this, for each mutant
151 under investigation, seven L4+1 day old hermaphrodites were picked onto the centre of a
152 naïve bacterial food lawn. This acts as a matched unconditioned control. Another seven
153 L4+1 day old hermaphrodites were picked onto a pre-conditioned bacterial food lawn in
154 which 140-200 eggs had developed for 18 hours. The plates were then incubated at 20°C for
155 2 hours before food leaving events were observed for 30 minutes as described above.

156 **Pharyngeal pumping**

157 Following the measurement of food leaving at the 24 hour time point, feeding behaviour
158 was quantified by counting the pharyngeal pumping of three of the seven worms. The
159 worms selected for these measurements were on food for the observation period. One
160 pharyngeal pump was defined as one cycle of contraction-relaxation of the terminal bulb of
161 the pharyngeal muscle. This behaviour was measured for 1 minute using a binocular
162 dissecting microscope (Nikon SMZ800; X63) and the pumps per minute for each worm
163 recorded from a single observation [81].

164 **Thrashing**

165 Thrashing analysis was performed on the *C. elegans* mutants that were investigated in the
166 pre-conditioned food leaving assay. Using a 24 well plate, 6-7 N2 or mutant worms were
167 picked per well containing 500µl of M9 with 0.1% bovine serum albumin and left for 5-10
168 minutes before thrashing was observed. For each worm thrashing was counted for 30
169 seconds. Each thrash was defined as a complete movement through the midpoint of the
170 worms body and back. For each mutant under investigation N2 control worms were

171 analysed in parallel and at least two separate assays were performed. Investigators were
172 blind to the genotypes being investigated.

173 **Statistical analysis**

174 Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 8 software. Data are expressed as
175 mean or mean \pm SEM as indicated in the figure legend. Statistical tests and post-hoc analysis
176 is indicated in the figure legends. Significance level was set to $P < 0.05$.

177 **Results**

178 **Selection of human ASD associated genes for study using *C. elegans* social behaviour**

179 The genetic architecture of autism is complex with over 1,000 genes currently implicated in
180 the disorder [11]. Furthermore, the functional contribution that many of these genes make
181 to the behavioural domains implicated in ASD remains unclear. We have created a pipeline
182 (Fig 1) to select *C. elegans* orthologues of human ASD associated genes and that can be
183 investigated in a paradigm of social behaviour in the worm.

184 We used SFARI Gene, a growing database which categorises ASD risk genes based on the
185 strength of evidence supporting the association. We prioritised 91 genes ranked by SFARI
186 Gene Archive (accessed October 2018) as category 1-high confidence and category 2-strong
187 candidate. Of these 91 genes, 84% (76/91) had at least one orthologue in *C. elegans*. A
188 mutant strain was available for 84% (64/76) of the orthologous genes using the criteria that
189 the mutant strain was available from the CGC and/or NBRP. Of these, 43 genes had available
190 mutants that were either lethal, sterile or uncoordinated (Fig 1). We considered that such
191 phenotypes rendered these mutants unsuitable for investigation in the social behaviour
192 assay. On this basis we selected 40 *C. elegans* mutants spanning 21 human ASD associated

193 genes for further investigation (Table 1). The human ASD associated genes were each
194 assigned to a group based upon the functional description of the encoded protein in
195 UniProtKB database. The functional groupings were: synaptic, neuronal, cell signalling,
196 epigenetic modifiers and phospholipid metabolism. This led to a distribution of candidates
197 highlighting 43% as synaptic genes, 33% as epigenetic modifiers, 10% as cell signalling, 9%
198 neuronal and 5% phospholipid metabolism (Fig 1).

199 **Screening mutants using food leaving behaviour identifies ASD associated genetic** 200 **determinants of social behaviour**

201 To investigate food leaving behaviour, mutants were picked onto the centre of a bacterial
202 lawn and food leaving events were measured after 24 hours. During the 24 hour incubation
203 period the adult worms lay eggs which hatch into *C. elegans* progeny. It has been previously
204 shown that progeny-derived social cues mediate a progeny-dependent increase in adult
205 food leaving behaviour [38]. In accordance with previous findings we observed that N2
206 worms left the food lawn after 24 hours at a rate of approximately 0.088 leaving
207 events/worm/minute (Fig 2). We had previously established a blunted food leaving response
208 for the *nlg-1(ok259)* mutant [39] and this was used as an internal measure in the current
209 assays (Fig 2).

210 Against this backdrop, N2 and *nlg-1(ok259)* were investigated alongside the selected
211 mutants we filtered through following initial selection from the SAFRI Gene data base. This
212 comparison showed that 23 of the 39 *C. elegans* mutants showed a mean food leaving rate
213 lower than that of *nlg-1(ok259)* suggesting food leaving impairment (Fig 2). Mutants with a
214 reduced food leaving phenotype were distributed across the five functional categories we

215 defined suggesting genetic disruption within a range of molecular determinants from
216 distinct biological domains may contribute to the emergence of *C. elegans* social behaviour.
217 As part of the investigation, where possible, we analysed two or more mutant alleles for a
218 single gene (Fig 2). For some mutants, for example for *gap-2* and *rig-6* mutants, the two
219 mutants phenocopied one another and showed a food leaving rate similar to that of N2.
220 Interestingly, we found two loss-of-function *nmr-2* mutants which also phenocopied one
221 another but showed significant food leaving impairment (Fig 2). In contrast, there were also
222 instances where mutant alleles did not phenocopy each other. For example *nrx-1* and *chd-7*
223 mutants showed one mutant allele with impaired food leaving and one with a behavioural
224 response to progeny similar to N2 (Fig 2).

225 **Impaired social behaviour of mutants is likely a selective response to progeny derived**
226 **social cues**

227 Previous work has identified the value of investigating additional behaviours that can be
228 scored in the observational arena [36]. In this respect the food leaving assay allows for
229 multi-tracking phenotypic analysis including pharyngeal pumping, development and egg
230 laying. In the case of pharyngeal pumping and egg laying, this reflects the output of a
231 defined neuromodulation and the possible consequence progeny exposure might have on
232 this. In the case of development, this provides insight into whether the mutations perturb
233 gross development, a useful consideration in a neurodevelopmental disorder.

234 After each food leaving assay we quantified the pharyngeal pump rate of the mutants.
235 Pharyngeal pumping is modulated via external sensory cues such as food [82]. Therefore we
236 wanted to test whether another sensory regulated behaviour was affected in these
237 mutants. 87% of mutants showed no pumping phenotype (Fig 3). In fact the majority of

238 mutants with impaired social behaviour (Fig 2) had a pumping rate similar to N2 (Fig 3). This
239 shows that most mutants with reduced food leaving behaviour are capable of responding to
240 food-dependent sensory cues and co-ordinating normal feeding behaviour. In addition, the
241 *cca-1(ad1650)* mutant which showed the most deficient pumping phenotype (Fig 3) did not
242 show a food leaving phenotype (Fig 2), further suggesting that deficits in feeding behaviour
243 are unlikely to explain differences in food leaving behaviour.

244 Next, we measured early development by quantifying the proportion of total progeny that
245 were eggs, L1 and L2 progeny 24 hours after introducing 7 L4+1. We used % proportion to
246 normalise for observed variation in the total number of eggs laid. 75% of mutants developed
247 at a similar rate to N2 showing that there is no gross early developmental delay (Fig 4).

248 Interestingly, whilst early development seems to be largely unaffected we noted a larger
249 variation in the egg laying of distinct mutants when compared to N2 controls (S1 Fig). The
250 number of eggs laid by a mutant is an important consideration for this assay because the
251 density of progeny populating a food lawn is known to influence the food leaving rate of
252 adult worms [38]. We plotted the relationship between the number of progeny produced by
253 a mutant and the food leaving behaviour and showed that the two were correlated (Fig 5).

254 Interestingly, this applies to the *nrx-1* and *chd-7* mutants for which the two alleles tested
255 resulted in distinct social phenotypes (Fig 2). In each case the mutant that showed impaired
256 social behaviour (Fig 2) also produced fewer progeny (S1 Fig). Producing fewer progeny
257 means adult worms were exposed to fewer progeny-derived social cues and could explain
258 the low food leaving rate seen. The correlation between social behaviour and progeny
259 exposure, and the limited disruption seen to the other phenotypes tested, implies that
260 progeny-derived social cues selectively effect social behaviour and therefore progeny
261 exposure is an important consideration in this type of investigation.

262 **Exposure to N2 progeny selectively modulates social behaviour in a number of mutants**

263 Those strains which produced few progeny confound the assessment of the reduced food
264 leaving behaviour as the response is dependent on the density of progeny populating the
265 food lawn [38]. This was addressed by testing the food leaving behaviour of 30 mutants in
266 response to an experimentally controlled number of N2 progeny. This used a pre-
267 conditioning approach in which N2 progeny pre-populate the lawn and precondition them
268 by mimicking the progeny population that emerge in the first food leaving assay. These
269 assays allow the acute effect of progeny exposure on food leaving behaviour to be
270 investigated. This secondary screen focussed on mutants that showed a mean food leaving
271 rate lower than that of *nlg-1(ok259)* in at least one allele tested (Fig 2). Thus we directly
272 tested the veracity of mutants that emerge from the first screen and explicitly address the
273 potential confound of reduced progeny number. For each mutant we performed a paired
274 experiment in which mutant food leaving was measured on a naïve, unmatched control,
275 plate containing OP50 and a preconditioned plate that incubated 140-200 eggs for 24 hours
276 before introducing 7 L4+1 adults. In accordance with previous findings, N2 adults showed
277 enhanced food leaving in response to progeny and this response was blunted in the *nlg-*
278 *1(ok259)* adults exposed to pre-loaded N2 progeny (Fig 6).

279 Analysis of mutants in response to pre-loaded N2 progeny revealed a number of mutants
280 which left infrequently on both naïve and pre-conditioned food lawns, showing little
281 progeny-enhanced food leaving (Fig 6). We reasoned that the low food leaving rate of these
282 mutants could be explained by locomotory deficits. To address this we performed a
283 thrashing assay to assess the innate movement ability of the mutants. Whilst some mutants
284 showed minor disruption to thrashing behaviour (Fig 7) for most mutants thrashing did not

285 predict food leaving behaviour. For example, *nlg-1(ok259)* and *set-4* mutants showed
286 deficits in food leaving behaviour (Fig 6) without any impairment to thrashing (Fig 7).
287 Furthermore, four mutants of the *mboa-7* gene all showed impaired progeny-induced food
288 leaving behaviour with only one of these mutants having reduced thrashing (Fig 7). This
289 suggests that food leaving and thrashing behaviours are uncoupled and therefore suggests it
290 is unlikely that simple motility deficits explain progeny-induced food leaving impairment.
291 Therefore, deficits in progeny-enhanced food leaving behaviour may be due to an impaired
292 ability of adult worms to respond to social cues released by progeny in order to modulate
293 their food leaving behaviour. The social impairment we observed in mutants suggests that a
294 variety of genes may act as molecular determinants of social behaviour. Interestingly, these
295 genes were part of synaptic, cell signalling, epigenetic modifier and phospholipid
296 metabolism categories. This highlights that molecular determinants from these biological
297 domains may be important for the emergence of social behaviour.

298 The comparison of behaviour on naïve and pre-conditioned lawns also allowed for the
299 analysis of egg laying behaviour in response to progeny. We quantified the number of eggs
300 laid by each mutant on naïve and pre-conditioned food lawns after each food leaving assay.
301 Interestingly, all mutants laid the same number of eggs on naïve and pre-conditioned food
302 lawns (S2 Fig). This shows that progeny exposure modulates food leaving behaviour and not
303 egg laying. This therefore suggests that the circuit which integrates progeny cues to sculpt
304 food leaving motility is independent of egg laying behaviour which is modulated by other
305 environmental cues.

306 Overall, starting with 91 human ASD associated genes we used criteria based filtering to
307 define 21 candidate genes for analysis using a *C. elegans* social paradigm. An initial screen of

308 social behaviour in response to progeny produced over 24 hours indicated 23 mutants with
309 a reduced food leaving phenotype. We then confirmed the veracity of this phenotype using
310 a progeny pre-conditioned food leaving approach and identified mutants that showed a
311 socially impaired phenotype. The limited disruption in other phenotypes tested for these
312 mutants suggests that reduced food leaving is a selective social impairment in response to
313 progeny-derived social cues. Identification of these mutants highlights genetic determinants
314 that appear to play a role in social behaviour and also suggests that a number of biological
315 domains (synaptic, cell signalling, epigenetic modification and phospholipid metabolism) are
316 important for the coordination of social behaviour.

317 **Discussion**

318 ASD is characterised by a triad of behavioural impairments including neuro-atypical
319 behaviour in the social domain [1]. Individuals with ASD have also been shown to produce
320 altered behavioural responses to a range of chemosensory cues such as olfactory, tactile
321 and gustatory cues [5, 83]. Multi-sensory processing deficits identified in ASD highlights the
322 importance of sensory integration at a circuit level [84] however, it is still unclear how
323 disruption within neural circuits evoke a modified behavioural output. Recent experiments
324 have highlighted the value of investigating molecular determinants of ASD in the context of
325 defined integrative circuits to try and understand more precisely how disruption within
326 these circuits underpins the phenotypes associated with ASD [16, 17, 36, 47]. Approaches,
327 such as these, that better resolve the underlying mechanisms should facilitate
328 pharmacological treatment of ASD and other neuropsychiatric disorders [85].

329 ASD is known to have a complex genetic architecture, with hundreds of genes with varying
330 penetrance implicated in its aetiology [7]. Although the genetic basis is well documented the

331 functional contribution which many of the genes make to the behavioural domains
332 associated with ASD is unclear. Animal models have begun to understand genetic
333 contribution in autism [26]. The analysis of single, high penetrant, variants is becoming
334 increasingly well refined with the use of animal social behaviours. Use of social behaviours
335 underpinned by discreet neural circuits has helped establish the role of some ASD
336 associated genes in the social domain [39, 86]. However, the analysis of common, low
337 penetrant, variants is more complex. Additive effects from polygenic interaction of multiple
338 common variants contributes to wide spread disruption at distinct levels of the biological
339 system which is expressed as an emergent behaviour [8].

340 *C. elegans* have been used in targeted single gene approaches and in screens of ASD
341 associated genes to provide valuable insight into the role of some genes in sensory
342 processing, development and learning phenotypes [36, 87]. Recently we have shown the
343 utility of using a social behavioural paradigm in *C. elegans* to investigate a single ASD
344 associated gene [39]. This paradigm is based on inter-organismal signalling by use of
345 chemosensory social cues which results in a progeny-induced food leaving phenotype [38].
346 In this study we have used this social paradigm in a screen of ASD associated genes and
347 identified gene candidates with a role in *C. elegans* social behaviour.

348 We created a pipeline to prioritise human genes for investigation using *C. elegans* social
349 behaviour. From this we identified 21 human genes for investigation using 40 *C. elegans*
350 mutant orthologues. Similarities between our prioritisation strategy and those used in
351 previous *C. elegans* studies resulted in the iterative selection of some well-studied ASD
352 associated genes such as neuroligin and neuroligin [34, 36]. Our study is distinct from others
353 because we biased our gene filtering approach to select for *C. elegans* mutants that were

354 appropriate for analysis of social behaviour using a pre-conditioned food leaving approach.

355 We were selective in choosing mutants appropriate for our behavioural analysis, for

356 example the exclusion of overt locomotory mutants due to their possible confounding effect

357 on food leaving motility.

358 We used a single point analysis focused on progeny induced food leaving from which we

359 also analysed pharyngeal pumping, early development and egg laying capabilities in

360 response to progeny derived social cues. We identified a number of mutants with an altered

361 behavioural response to progeny populating a food lawn providing evidence that *C. elegans*

362 are capable of modelling disruption to an emergent behaviour in response to mutation to an

363 ASD associated gene. Movement in liquid has been used in other studies to screen ASD

364 associated genes [34]. Our analysis of thrashing in mutants identified that this type of

365 locomotory assay does not accurately predict an impaired food leaving behaviour and does

366 not serve as a surrogate for the more complex integrative progeny-induced social behaviour

367 phenotype. This highlights our behavioural screen as a unique platform which is selectively

368 tuned to identify genetic determinants with a role in social circuits, that when disrupted

369 could appear phenotypically normal in thrashing behaviour.

370 The candidates that we identified as having a role in social behaviour are orthologues of

371 human genes that range in function including synaptic, cell signalling and epigenetic

372 modification. Genes disrupted in each of these domains are known to contribute to ASD [88,

373 89]. Therefore, the genes that emerge from our screen are representative of the main

374 functional domains disrupted in autism. Our screen has therefore produced a diverse list of

375 candidate genes that can be used to interrogate the systems level disruption that evokes

376 modified behavioural output in ASD. Previous work has focused largely on locomotory and

377 morphological readouts of altered behavioural phenotypes [34-36] whereas our approach
378 facilitates the identification of candidate genes with a role in a more complex, sensory
379 regulated, emergent behaviour which more closely resembles the social domain disrupted
380 in autism. Identification of candidates using this approach therefore provides a benchmark
381 from which the social circuit can be further dissected [90].

382 We identified five synaptic genes, *nlg-1*, *nrx-1*, *shn-1*, *glr-1* and *nmr-2*, with a role in
383 coordinating progeny-induced social behaviour. In the mammalian nervous system, NLGN,
384 NRXN and SHANK's interaction at the synapse is well established and dysfunction to all
385 three genes has been widely implicated in ASD [91]. Synaptic scaffolds including SHANK are
386 known to interact with receptors such as AMPA and NMDA to help regulate the ion channel
387 composition at the synapse [92]. This provides evidence that this assay for social interaction
388 identifies behavioural disruption in orthologues of genes that function together at
389 mammalian synapses. The role of these mammalian genes in nervous system function
390 and/or synaptic transmission are functionally conserved in *C. elegans* [40, 49, 51, 93-95].
391 This means that we can resolve singular determinants with the potential to unpick genes
392 that encode dysfunctional interactions. This raises the opportunity to model the polygenic
393 nature of ASD [8, 36, 96-98].

394 Previous scaled use of assays to investigate ASD associated genes in *C. elegans* used
395 strategies to prioritise genes before behavioural analysis [34-36]. The outcome of these
396 studies resulted in an incomplete overlap of some genes investigated in our study. We made
397 a comparison between *C. elegans* mutants that emerged from our study with an impaired
398 social phenotype to mutants that have emerged from previous studies as having impaired
399 movement and habituation phenotypes [34, 36]. However, the vast majority of mutants that

400 we identified with behavioural impairment are unique to this study. For example, *shn-*
401 *1(gk181)* and *set-9(n4949)* show impaired social behaviour in response to progeny, whilst
402 appearing grossly wild-type for the other phenotypes we tested. In addition these mutants
403 do not show a behavioural phenotype in movement or habituation behaviour when
404 investigated in previous studies [34, 36]. This highlights that the emergent behaviour we
405 have used reveals genes that are missed when they emerge from the bioinformatic pipeline.
406 This makes the case that applying a lower throughput observer based assay will refine
407 previous efforts to model the functional impact of genes implicated in ASD.

408 The emergent behaviour that we have used is a complex, sensory integrative behaviour.
409 Habituation learning is another complex behaviour in *C. elegans* that has been investigated
410 in a previous screen of ASD associated genes [36]. Therefore, we wanted to identify whether
411 there was overlap in mutants with behavioural impairment in two distinct complex
412 behavioural phenotypes. We made a comparison of mutants that we had identified as
413 having a social impairment to mutants that have been shown to have a habituation
414 phenotype [36]. We identified four synaptic mutants, *nlg-1(ok259)*, *nrx-1(ds1)*, *glr-1(n2461)*
415 and *nmr-2(ok3324)*, which have impaired social behaviour and have also been shown to
416 have a habituation phenotype. This suggests that these genes may have a role in
417 coordinating more than one complex sensory-regulated behaviour in *C. elegans*. This may
418 also suggest that a key role of synaptic genes is in coordinating higher behaviours in *C.*
419 *elegans*. With this in mind it would be interesting to extend the analysis of mutants with
420 habituation impairment and screen them for social deficits. Our approach lends itself to the
421 identification of complex behavioural deficits and so would be valuable in this analysis to
422 further understand if there is an over-representation of synaptic genes in complex sensory
423 integrative phenotypes.

424 In addition to highlighting the important contribution of synaptic, cell signalling and
425 epigenetic genes, we identify a gene involved in phospholipid metabolism that appears to
426 play a role in progeny-induced social behaviour. *mboa-7* is a lysoPI acetyltransferase which
427 is important in the regulation of phospholipid membranes [99] and cell signalling [78] in *C.*
428 *elegans*. In mammals, the regulation of membrane composition is important for cellular
429 processes, signalling and nervous system function [100, 101]. Studies of the MBOAT7
430 ortholog in mice suggest it may function in brain development [102], however this gene is
431 comparatively less well studied than other ASD associated genes for its functional
432 contribution to the disorder. Therefore, the identification of this gene with a role in
433 progeny-induced social behaviour highlights how this study enriches the understanding of
434 the molecular determinants of social behaviour from underrepresented genes in autism.

435 In conclusion, investigation of ASD associated orthologues in *C. elegans* identified genes
436 from a number of candidates implicated in ASD that disrupt social behaviour in the worm.
437 Identification of these genes highlights how this assay might be used in quantitative
438 approaches that can probe the single [39] and polygenic nature of ASD and its underpinning
439 genetic architecture [36]. The robust nature of this assay provokes a better detailing of the
440 cellular and circuit dependence of this social interaction. Guided by the cellular
441 determinants of behaviour, investigation can extend to probe the polygenic nature of ASD
442 and take a similar approach in other psychiatric diseases that have significant consequences
443 for behavioural traits in the social domain [103, 104].

444 **Acknowledgments**

445 Some strains were provided by the CGC, which is funded by NIH Office of Research
446 Infrastructure Programs (P40 OD010440). Some strains were provided by the National

447 BioResource Project (NBRP) Japan. This work was funded by the Gerald Kerkut Charitable
448 Trust.

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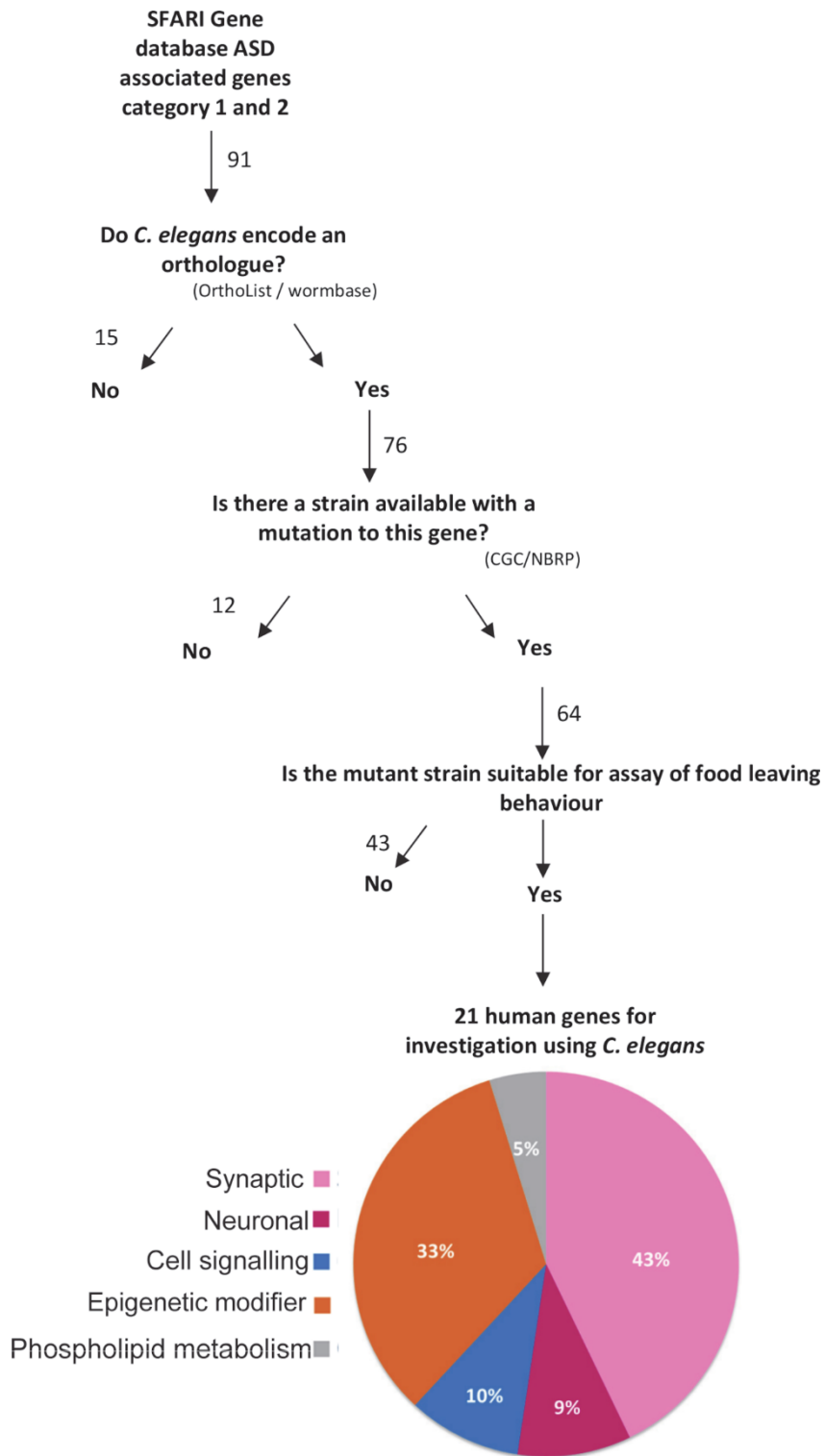
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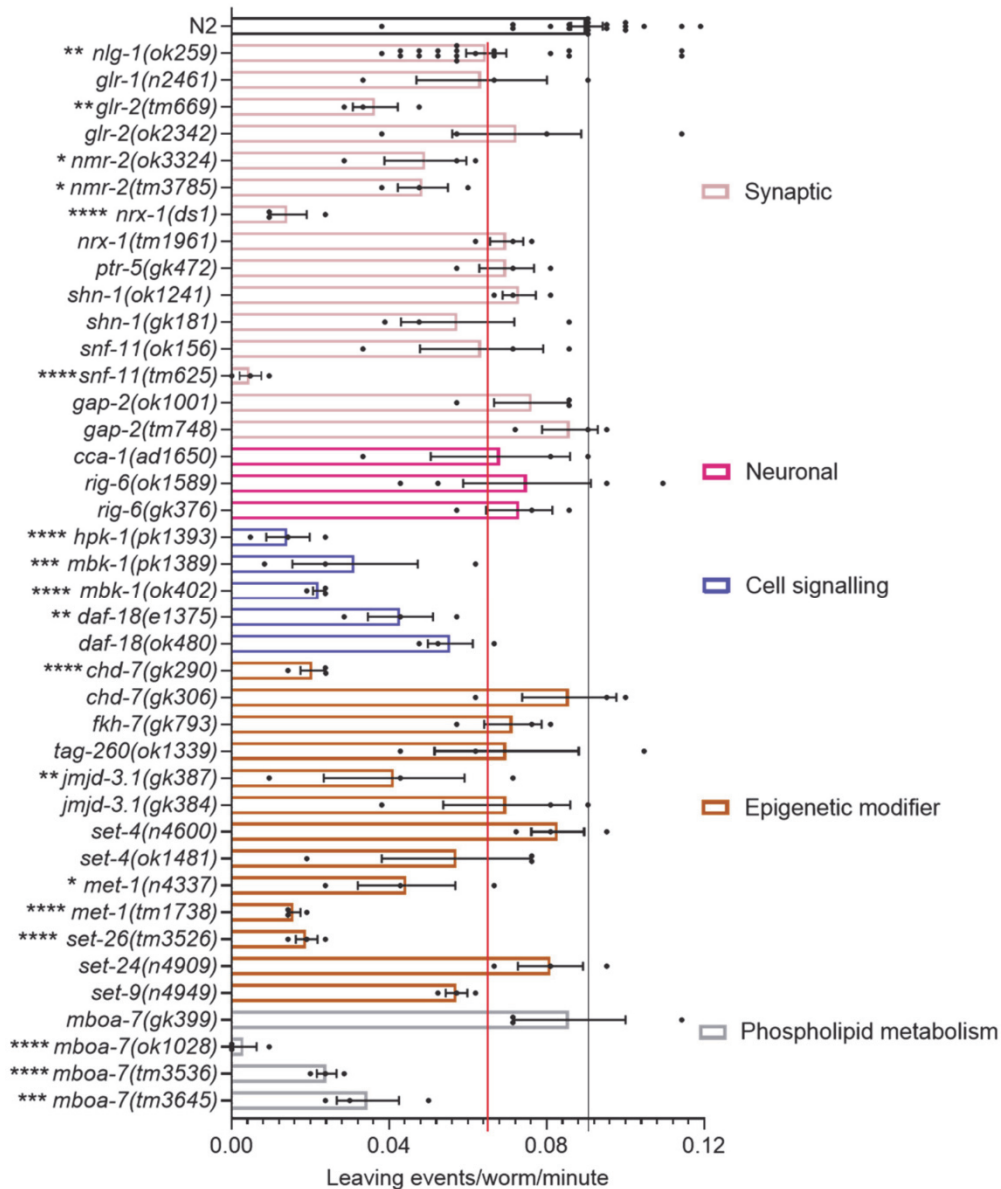
770 **Fig 1: Prioritisation and categorization of the *C. elegans* orthologues of prioritised human ASD**

771 **associated genes.** High confidence ASD associated genes in category 1 and 2 in SFARI Gene Archive

772 were input. The pipeline selects human genes which have an orthologue in *C. elegans* which can be

773 studied in an available mutant strain which is neither lethal, sterile or uncoordinated. In brackets are

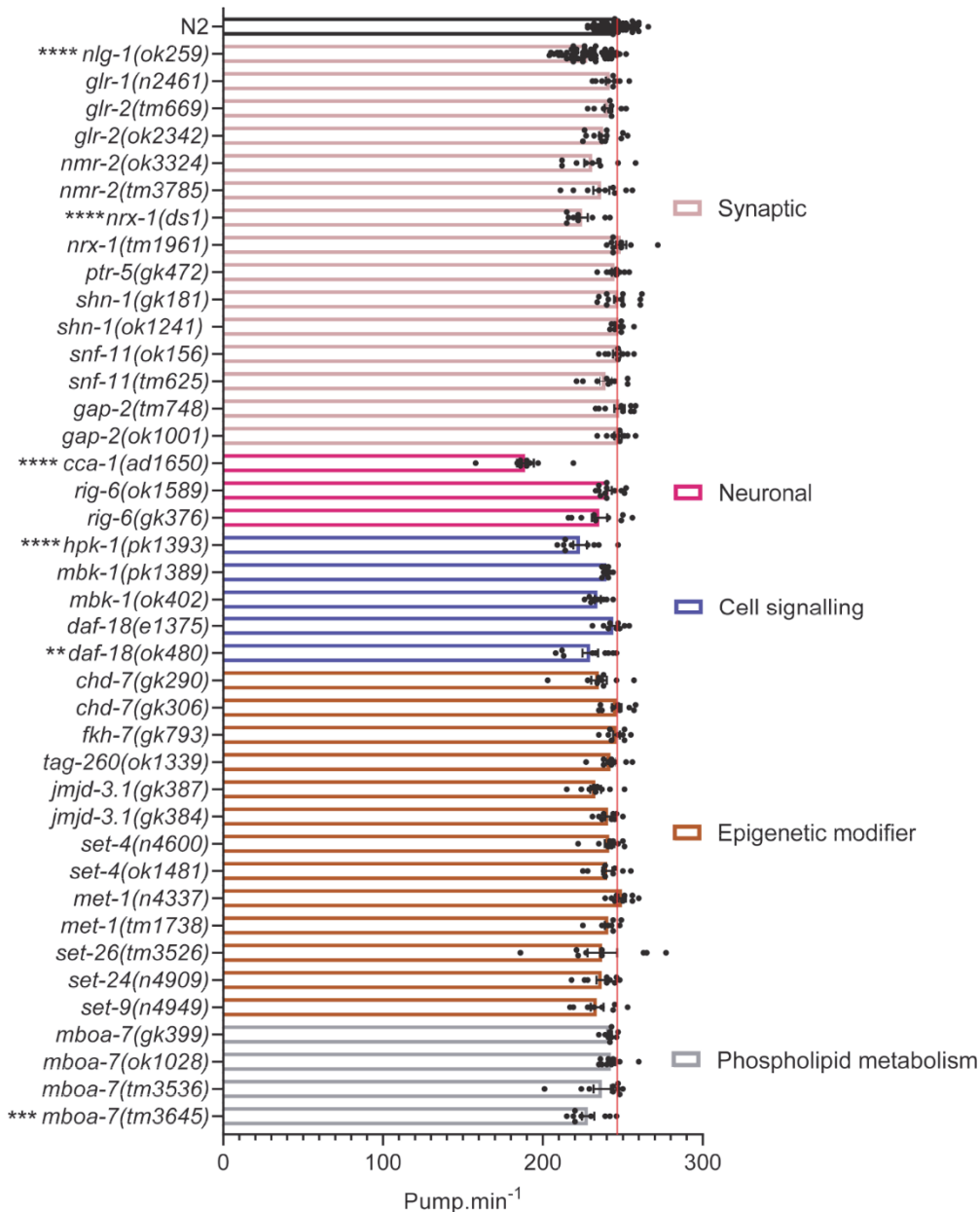
774 the resources used for analysis. CGC – *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center. NBRP – National BioResource
 775 Project. The number of genes analysed using SFARI Gene Archive (<https://gene-archive.sfari.org/>,
 776 accessed October 2018) are stated. The pie chart indicates the percent of the 21 human genes that
 777 were placed into five functional groupings.



778

779 **Fig 2: Food leaving behaviour of *C. elegans* mutants after 24 hours on food to investigate human**
 780 **ASD associated genes.** A food leaving assay was performed with N2, *nlg-1(ok259)* and 39 other *C.*
 781 *elegans* mutants. Genes are categorised and colour coded into different functional domains. The
 782 black line indicates the number of leaving events/worm/minute for N2 control. The red line indicates

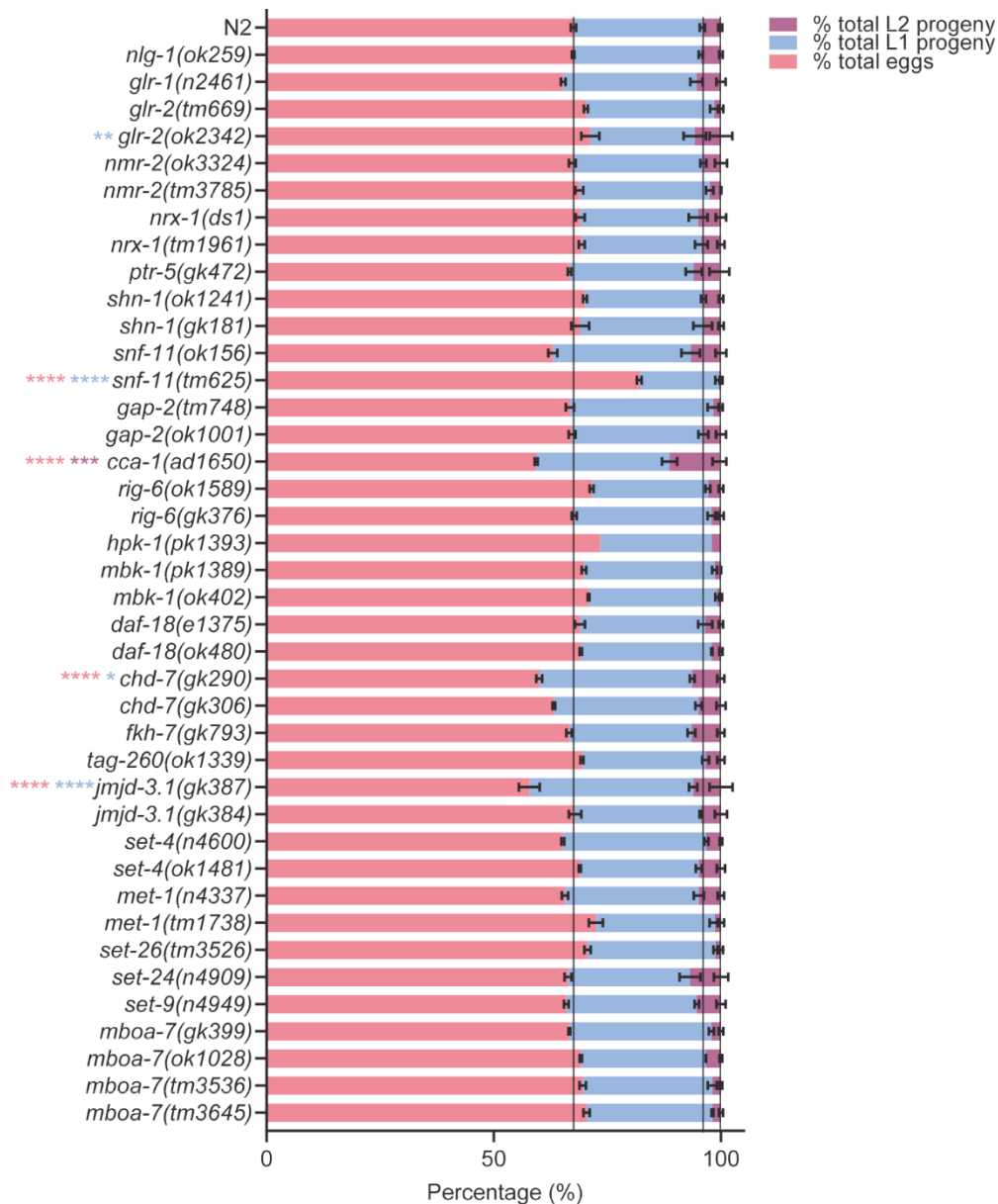
783 the food leaving rate of *nlg-1(ok259)* control. N2 and *nlg-1(ok259)* n=19. All other mutants n=3-4. All
 784 data shown as mean \pm SEM. Statistical analysis performed using a one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's
 785 multiple comparison test; ns, $p>0.05$; *, $p<0.05$; **, $p\leq 0.01$; ***, $p\leq 0.001$; ****, $p\leq 0.0001$. All
 786 significance relates to a comparison with N2 control.



787

788 **Fig 3: Pharyngeal pump rate for *C. elegans* mutants.** After a food leaving assay at 24 hours, three
 789 worms were chosen at random and their pharyngeal pump rate was counted per minute. N2 and
 790 *nlg-1(ok259)* n=57. All other mutants n=9-12. The red line indicates pumps per minute for N2
 791 control. All data shown as mean \pm SEM. Statistical analysis performed using a one-way ANOVA and

792 Dunnetts's multiple comparison test; ns, $p > 0.05$; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; ****, $p \leq 0.0001$. All significance relates to a comparison with N2 control.

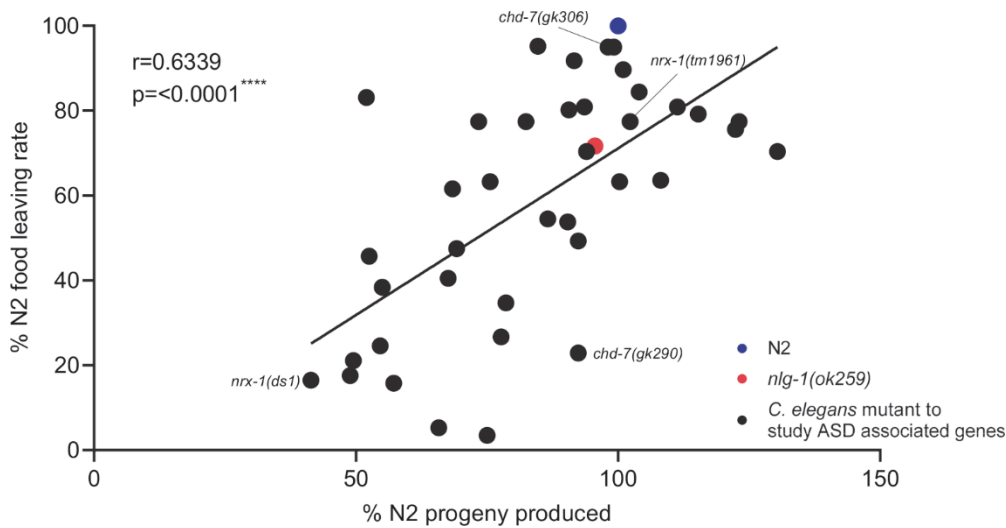


795 **Fig 4: Percent total eggs and progeny produced by *C. elegans* mutants at 24 hours.** After a food
 796 leaving assay from naïve food lawns occupied by 7 L4+1, the percent total offspring that were eggs,
 797 L1 and L2 progeny were quantified. N2 and *nlg-1(ok259)* n=19. All other mutants n=3-4. The black
 798 lines indicate % total eggs, % total L1 progeny and % total L2 progeny for N2 control. Pink asterisks
 799 indicate statistical difference between mutant and N2 for % total eggs. Blue asterisks indicate
 800 statistical difference between mutant and N2 for % total L1 progeny. Purple asterisks indicate

801 statistical difference between mutant and N2 for % total L2 progeny. All data shown as mean \pm SEM.

802 Statistical analysis performed using a two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; ns,

803 $p > 0.05$; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p \leq 0.01$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; ****, $p \leq 0.0001$.



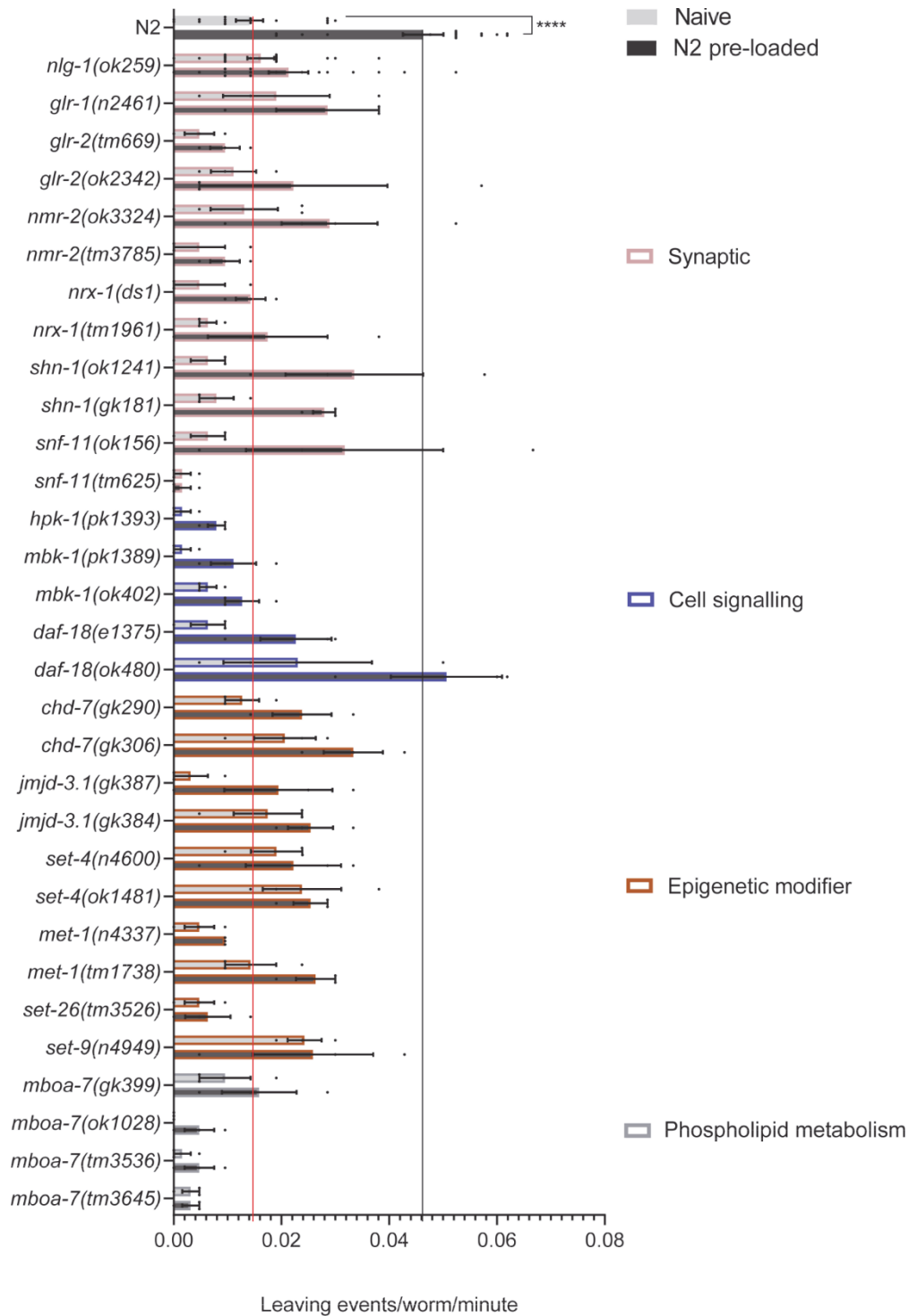
804

805 **Fig 5: Correlation between food leaving behaviour of *C. elegans* mutants and progeny production**

806 **during food leaving assay.** The percent food leaving rate and progeny produced for each *C. elegans*

807 mutant was calculated in comparison to N2. N2 and *nlg-1(ok259)* n=19. All other mutants n=3-4. All

808 data shown as mean. Statistical analysis performed using Pearson correlation coefficient.



809

Leaving events/worm/minute

810 **Fig 6: Food leaving behaviour of *C. elegans* mutants in the absence of progeny and exposure to N2**

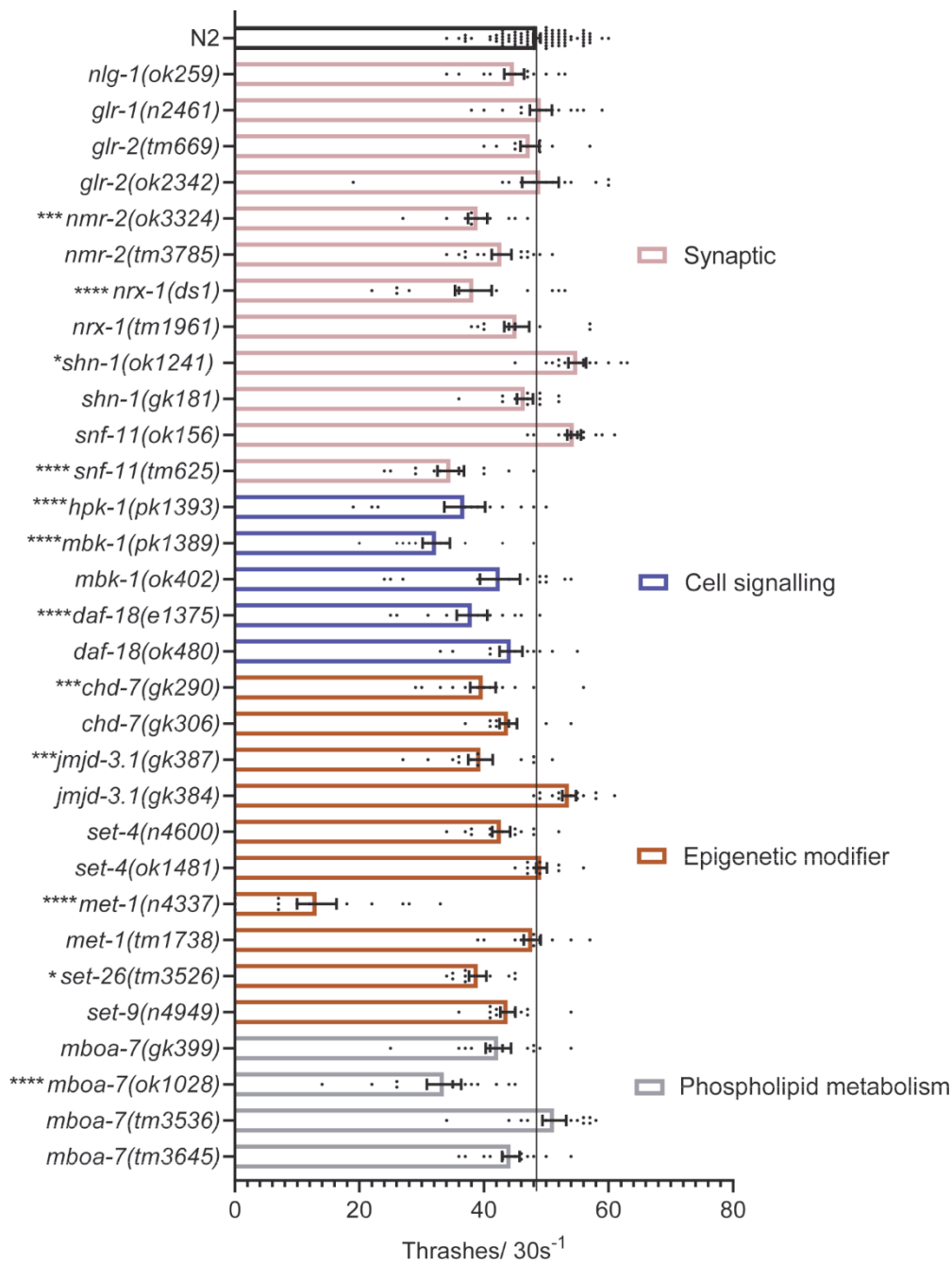
811 **progeny.** A food leaving assay was performed with N2, *nlg-1(ok259)* and 30 other *C. elegans* mutants

812 on naïve and pre-conditioned food lawns. A naïve lawn contains no progeny whereas a pre-

813 conditioned food lawn contains ~150-200 N2 progeny. The red line indicates the food leaving rate of

814 N2 naïve control. The black line indicates the food leaving rate of the N2 pre-loaded control. Data

815 shown as mean \pm SEM. N2 and *nlg-1(ok259)* n=16. All other mutants n=3-4. Statistical analysis
 816 performed using a two-way ANOVA and Sidak's multiple comparison test; ns, $p > 0.05$; $p \leq 0.001$ ****.



822 comparison test; ns, $p > 0.05$; *, $p < 0.05$; ***, $p \leq 0.001$; ****, $p \leq 0.0001$. All significance relates to a

823 comparison with N2 control.

824