Humanized substitutions of *Vmat1* in mice induce changes in amygdala-dependent

behaviors associated with the evolution of anxiety in humans

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Abstract

The human vesicular monoamine transporter 1 (*VMAT1*) harbors unique substitutions (Asn136Thr/Ile) that alter monoamine uptake into synaptic vesicles. These substitutions are absent in all known mammals, suggesting their contributions to distinct aspects of human behavior modulated by monoaminergic transmission, such as emotion and cognition. To directly test the impact of these human-specific mutations, we introduced the humanized residues into mouse *Vmat1* via CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing and examined changes at the behavioral, neurophysiological and molecular levels. Behavioral tests revealed reduced anxiety-related traits of *Vmat1*^Ile mice, consistent with human studies, and electrophysiological recordings showed altered oscillatory activity in the amygdala under anxiogenic conditions. Transcriptome analyses further identified amygdala-specific changes in the expression of genes involved in neurodevelopment and emotional regulation, which may corroborate the observed phenotypes. This knock-in mouse model hence provides compelling evidence that the mutations affecting monoaminergic signaling and amygdala circuits have contributed to the evolution of human socio-emotional behaviors.

Introduction

Recent years have seen a surge in the study revealing distinct human brain characteristics at the molecular, cellular, and circuit levels in both cortex and subcortical structures [1–4]. Differences in brain monoaminergic signaling are likely to be key factors conferring human attributes, as various monoaminergic pathways are involved in emotional regulation, memory consolidation, cognitive flexibility, and complex social behaviors [5–7]. Comparative studies have indeed demonstrated the distinct monoaminergic mechanisms in the human brain [2,8]. Moreover, diversification of monoaminergic mechanisms has been linked to the evolution of social behavior in non-human primates [9–12]. Thus, genetic differentiation of monoaminergic genes may underlie our unique emotional and social characteristics, such as empathy and altruism[2].

In line with these studies, we recently reported that the vesicular monoamine transporter 1 (*VMAT1*; also known as *SLC18A1*) gene has been under positive selection in the human lineage as evidenced by two amino acid substitutions (Glu130Gly and Asn136Thr) not shared by other primates [13]. The VMATs transport monoamine neurotransmitters into synaptic vesicles, thereby regulating the kinetics of synaptic transmission. There are two isoforms of VMAT, VMAT1 and 2, with the VMAT2 being highly expressed in the brain and widely studied [14,15]. In contrast, VMAT1 was previously thought to be expressed solely in the peripheral nervous system and chromaffin cells, and its functional importance in the CNS has only recently been implicated [16]. Our previous study showed that a new mutation at the 136th amino acid (136Ile) of *VMAT1* has emerged relatively recently in the course of human evolution,

and that the human-specific polymorphism Thr136Ile has likely been maintained by

balancing selection within non-African populations [13]. Moreover, fluorometric assays

demonstrated that these human-specific residues enhance monoamine neurotransmitter

uptake, suggesting the tendency of lower monoamine uptake in early hominids [17]. The

136Thr, the dominant variant across populations, is known to be marginally associated

with psychiatric diseases, such as bipolar disorder, depression and anxiety, as well as

with the neuroticism, a personality trait conferring greater risk of psychiatric disease [18–

20]. Thus, higher levels of depression and/or anxiety-like behaviors with 136Thr may

have been favored in our ancestors, while more recent selection may have led to the

emergence of 136Ile after the migration out of Africa and into harsher environments.

Although the evolution of *VMAT1* and its basic functions in the mammalian

CNS have been clarified, their contributions to unique human attributes are still unclear.

Here we examine the molecular, neurological, and behavioral changes in mice caused

by human-specific *VMAT1* mutations. We show that humanized *Vmat1* (*Vmat1*[Ile])

induces amygdala-specific changes in gene expression and neuronal activity, reduces

anxiety-like behaviors under anxiogenic conditions and even enhances preference for

social novelty. These findings suggest that altered monoaminergic signaling in the

amygdala has contributed to the evolution of human emotional and social behaviors,

and the present work provides a new experimental strategy for evolutionary studies of

human emotions.

Results and discussion

Conservation of the 136th residue of VMAT1 across non-human vertebrates

To investigate the evolutionary significance of the 136th residue in human VMAT1

(hVMAT1), we first examined the conservation of this residue in a wide range of taxa

in vertebrates. Multiple sequence alignments of VMAT1 among 236 vertebrate species

revealed the unique evolution of this residue in the human lineage (Fig. 1a). Notably,

we confirmed that all species but bicolor damselfish retain asparagine (Asn) at the 136th

amino acid, while *Homo sapiens* is the only vertebrate species that carries the unique

Thr136Ile (rs1390938) polymorphism.

Predicted effects of humanized residues on mouse VMAT1 structure and function

We then conducted *in silico* predictions of wild type mouse VMAT1 (mVMAT1)

protein structure and the changes conferred by human substitutions (Fig. 1b). Like the

hVMAT1 residue 136, we found out that the corresponding residue in mVMAT1

(133Asn) was located between the first luminal loop and the second transmembrane

domain, suggesting a similar function. Given the evolutionary conservation across

vertebrates and the difference in chemical properties between amino acids, the

humanized mutations to mVMAT1, especially 133Asn to 133Ile, were predicted to have

a significant impact on protein function (Table 1). Furthermore, the Asn133Ile mutation

was also predicted to stabilize the protein structure as evidenced by greater folding free

energy ($\Delta\Delta G$: 1.106 kcal/mol; Table 1) and to increase the flexibility of the loop

domain (Fig. 1b), which possibly increases the efficiency of monoamine uptake.

Generation of *Vmat1*-humanized mouse models by CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing

In order to replace the 133Asn of mouse Vmat1 with Thr or Ile, we employed the

CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing strategy (Fig. 2a). We selected a guide RNA

targeting the 133rd Asn codon in *Vmat1* exon 4 by using the web-based CRISPR design

tool to minimize off-target cleavage risk (Supplementary Table S1 and 2, see Methods

for details). By electroporating CRISPR components (*Vmat1* exon 4 crRNA, tracrRNA,

and Cas9 nuclease) along with the ssDNA donor containing the desired substitutions

into C57BL/6J fertilized eggs (Fig 2a, Supplementary Fig S1a), we successfully

generated 133Thr founder No.1 and 133Ile founder No.10 (Supplementary Fig. S1b, c

and d). After confirming the absence of off-target cleavages (Supplementary Fig. S2),

we crossed 133Thr founder No.1 and 133Ile founder No.10 with wild type (WT)

C57BL/6J mice to obtain heterozygous F1 generations, which were again verified to

possess the designed substitutions by Sanger sequencing. The homozygous mice were

further crossed after the F5 generations to obtain three humanized genotypes, Thr/Thr,

Thr/Ile, and Ile/Ile, in addition to WT, for behavioral, neurophysiological, and

transcriptomic analyses (Supplementary Fig. S3, see Methods).

The human Ile substitution in mVMAT1 reduced behavioral anxiety

We accordingly conducted comprehensive behavioral tests among the 20 sets of mice

including one of each genotype (*Vmat1*^WT, *Vmat1*^Thr/Thr, *Vmat1*^Thr/Ile, and *Vmat1*^Ile/Ile)

from the 1st batch at 9–55 weeks (see Supplementary Table S3 for detailed information

on age and the number of individuals used in each test). Detailed results were shown in

Fig. S4–19. Tests of social interaction (SI) between stranger mice of the same genotype

in a novel environment (one-chamber SI test) and of preference for a novel stranger

over a previously exposed stranger (now familiar) in Crawley's 3-chamber social

interaction (CSI) test revealed marginal differences in behavioral phenotypes between

mice with and without $Vmat1^{Ile}$ ($P = 0.062$ for interactive effects of genotype (Ile) and

place, generalized additive model (GAM) with quasi-Poisson distribution; Fig. 3a,

Supplementary Fig. S9 and 10). In the CSI, $Vmat1^{Thr/Thr}$ mice significantly preferred

familiar to stranger mice ($P = 3.26 \times 10^{-4}$), while no such tendency was observed in

$Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice ($P = 0.759$ for $Vmat1^{Thr/Ile}$ mice and ($P = 0.195$ for $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice; Fig.

3a). Moreover, we found consistently lower levels of anxiety among $Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice

across tests, including relatively greater preference for the (anxiogenic) light box during

the two-chamber light/dark transition (LD) test and for the center of an open field (OF)

(Supplementary Fig. S5 and 6).

To confirm a pervasive effect on specific behavioral domains by humanized

VMAT1, we constructed composite behavioral phenotype scores by summating

standardized scores on related tests (LD, OF, elevated plus maze (EP), and SI tests) and

compared the results among genotypes. We further conducted Structural Equation

Modeling (SEM) to investigate the effects of genotype on these composite scores. This

analysis revealed a significant effect of 133Ile on anxiety scores ($R^2 = 0.15$, $P = 8.7 \times 10^{-3}$)

^{3}) but only marginal effects on locomotor activity ($R^2 = 0.062$, $P = 0.053$; Fig. 3b).

Anxiety levels were generally lower in $Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice ($P = 0.016$, one-way ANOVA;

Fig 3c). These phenotype changes (i.e., a pattern in which $Vmat1^{Thr}$ exhibits a similar

phenotype while $Vmat1^{Ile}$ differs compared to $Vmat1^{WT}$) are in line with the *in silico*

prediction of differentiated transport function for the mVMAT1 133Ile (Table 1, Fig.

1b) likewise in the hVMAT1 136Ile [16,17] and previous studies demonstrating altered

fear/anxiety responses and psychopathological effects of the variant [16,20].

In addition to standard tests of anxiety, exploratory tendency, and locomotor

activity, we also performed a novel delayed reward task to evaluate the differences in

impulsivity between $Vmat1^{Thr/Thr}$ and $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice (n = 10 for both genotypes, see

Methods for detailed experimental procedure; Supplementary Fig. S19a–c). Throughout

the test, there was no statistically significant difference in food preference between

genotypes ($P = 0.50$ for the first term, GAM with quasi-Poisson distribution;

Supplementary Fig. S19d). However, $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ showed a lower preference for the

higher-calorie but delayed food reward than $Vmat1^{Thr/Thr}$ mice every test day from 5 to 9

except for day 6 compared to the basal level after habituation (day 4) (Supplementary

Fig. S19d). This finding may suggest that the $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice are more impulsive, at

least initially, under this condition but contradicts an epidemiological study reporting an

association of 136Thr with maladaptive impulsivity [20]. Kim et al. (2018) reported that

the deletion of the D2 dopamine receptor (D2R) increased impulsive behavior in mice,

whereas restoration of D2R in the amygdala alone normalized impulsive behavior [21].

This is compatible with our results, as dopaminergic genes including *Drd2* were

downregulated in $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice (see subsequent sections). The possible difference in

association of *VMAT1* genotype with impulsivity between humans and mice may stem

from functional connectivity changes in related neural circuits and warrants further

investigation.

185   Overall, these observations suggest that the 136Ile substitution may contribute

to uniquely human behavioral traits that have propelled both our technological progress

and adaptation to almost all ecosystems, namely high exploratory tendency and

relatively lower anxiety under threatening or novel conditions. Indeed, 136Ile allele

frequency increases along the migration route of modern humans [13], suggesting that the

exploratory tendency and/or boldness conferred by this mutation was advantageous for

survival. In this regard, *Vmat1*[Ile] is analogous to the D4R polymorphism associated with

novelty-seeking behavior [22].

Differential regulation of dopaminergic and neurodevelopmental genes in the

amygdala by *Vmat1* genotype

We then conducted RNA-Seq analysis to investigate the effects of the four *Vmat1*

genotypes on gene expression patterns in three brain regions likely associated with the

behavioral phenotypes (prefrontal cortex, amygdala, and striatum) (n = 4 mice for each

genotype; see Supplementary Table S4 for detailed information on samples and reads).

Samples were obtained from mice exploring in a novel environment for 30 min. A total

number of 13,608 genes were assessed after excluding a putative amygdala sample

derived from a *Vmat1*[Thr/Thr] mouse due to possible sampling error (Supplementary Fig.

S20; see the detailed description in Methods). Principal component analysis revealed

distinct expression patterns among brain areas, but no obvious differences between

genotypes and ages (4 vs. 10 months) (Supplementary Fig. S20).

We thus screened for differentially expressed genes (DEGs) by pair-wise

comparisons between genotypes, which yielded a total of 80 DEGs exclusively in the

amygdala (Fig. 4a). A large proportion of these genes (56 out of 80) were differentially

expressed between $Vmat1^{WT}$ and $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice (Fig. 4a). The expression levels of

DEGs for each sample were shown in Supplementary Fig. S21. We then utilized the

correlations between composite anxiety scores and individual expression levels

(transcripts per million, TPM) of the detected amygdalar DEGs among a subset of 8

mice (n = 2 for each genotype). Particularly strong correlations were found for nine

genes, $Baz1a$, $Camk2n1$, $Ccdc114$, $Cldn1$, $Fsbp$, $Gdnf$, $Gm42608$, $Gsg1l$, and KI ($P <$

0.1; Fig. 4b, Supplementary Fig. S22). The DEGs were further examined for gene

ontology (GO) enrichment, which revealed significant overrepresentation of genes

involved in "behavior", "fear response", "response to amphetamine", "cardiac muscle

tissue development", or "cAMP catabolic process" (Table 2) between WT and Ile/Ile

mice, while no GO terms were enriched in DEGs for other genotype comparisons (as

there were few such genes). Moreover, gene expression patterns in the Ile mice

amygdala were significantly positively correlated with those of striata of transgenic

mouse models of Huntington disease (P < 1.0×10^{-28}; Supplementary Table S5, Fig.

S23). Huntington disease (HD) is characterized by progressive behavioral and cognitive

deficits and caused by an expanded CAG repeat in the huntingtin (HTT) gene. It is

possible that the Ile mice recapitulate some dimensions of HD pathology, given that

dopamine (DA) signaling likely plays a significant role in HD, and the only current

FDA-approved drug for HD is a VMAT2 inhibitor, tetrabenazine [23].

228   To further characterize the biological pathways affected by *Vmat1* genotype,

we performed weighted gene correlation network analysis (WGCNA; Fig. 4c), which

revealed a co-expressing gene module (M1; Fig. 4c) significantly overrepresented in the

WT vs. Ile/Ile comparison (odds ratio = 3.79, P = 2.88×10^{-8} by Fisher's exact test) that

was negatively correlated with composite anxiety score. These genes include many

involved in adrenergic (*Adra2b*), dopaminergic (*Adcy5*, *Adora2a*, *Drd1*, *Drd2*, *Gnal*,

Gng7, *Gpr6*, *Gpr88*, *Pde1b*, *Pde1c*, *Pde7b*, *Pde10a*, *Pdyn*, *Penk*, *Ppp1r1b*, *Rasgrp2*,

Rgs9 and *Tac1*), glutamatergic (*Grm4*), and serotonergic (*Htr1b*, *Htr1d*, *Htr1f*, and

Htr4) signaling pathways. Lohoff et al. reported that *Vmat1* KO affected DA signaling

in particular, with upregulation of D2R and downregulation of tyrosine hydroxylase

(TH) observed in both the frontal cortex and striatum [24]. Given the association between

Vmat1 KO and decreased DA in the frontal cortex, we speculated that *Vmat1*$^{Ile/Ile}$ mice

would also exhibit downregulation of D2R and upregulation of TH compared to WT

mice. Indeed, D2R (along with many other dopaminergic pathway genes) was

downregulated in *Vmat1*$^{Ile/Ile}$ mice compared to WT mice. However, there were no

significant differences in TH expression among genotypes (Supplementary Fig. S24),

suggesting that the *Vmat1* Ile allele alters dopaminergic transmission but not DA

synthesis.

246   Sub-network analysis further detected another functional gene cluster

involved in neural development within the co-expressing module (cluster 2 in Fig. 4d).

Strikingly, three DEGs, *Foxp1*, *Foxp2*, or *Six3*, all of which are important regulators of

neural growth, were located in hubs connecting genes involved in postsynaptic

signaling (cluster 1) and neural development (cluster 2). Foxp1 (forkhead box protein

P1) is a transcription factor that regulates the development of various tissues including

the brain. Foxp1 is implicated in human language and social development. Foxp1

heterodimerizes with Foxp2, and a human-specific Foxp2 substitution is associated with

language impairment [25,26]. Moreover, Foxp1 mutations and haploinsufficiency are

associated with language impairment, intellectual disability, and autism [27–29]. Foxp2

also regulates D2R expression [30], extracellular DA levels [26], and the development of

dopaminergic neurons [31,32], while the cluster 2 genes *Dlx6*, *Ebf1*, *Isl1*, and *Six*3 are all

implicated in the development of striatal neurons that express DA receptors [33–35]. The

DEG *Sema5b*, a possible target of Foxp1 [36], encodes an inhibitory guidance cue for

neuronal axons that has also been shown to regulate synaptic connections in the

hippocampus [37]. The DEG *Kl* encodes the enzyme Klotho, which catalyzes the

activation of fibroblast growth factor (FGF) isoforms and has been shown protect

dopaminergic neurons against oxidative stress [38], while Wnt2 (also known as Irp) has

been found to increase dopaminergic neuron number by inducing the proliferation of

progenitor cells in the developing midbrain [39]. The differential expression of these genes

may also be related to the regulatory role of VMAT1 in hippocampal neurogenesis [40],

which emerging evidence suggests is associated with anxiety-like behavior [41,42]. Taken

together, the differential regulation of DA signaling by *Vmat1* genotypes may have

widespread effects on neural development and plasticity.

The humanized mVMAT1 disrupted anxiety-associated theta band activity in the

basolateral amygdala

Aforementioned behavioral and transcriptomic results suggest that the *Vmat1* genotype

influences anxiety-related neuronal activity patterns. Inspired by a previous report that

theta (4–12 Hz) oscillations in the medial prefrontal cortex (mPFC) and basolateral

amygdala (BLA) are specifically enhanced under anxiogenic environments such as the

open arms of an elevated plus maze (EP) and the center area of an OF [43,44], we next

performed simultaneous local field potential (LFP) recordings from the dorsomedial

prefrontal cortex (dmPFC) and BLA in freely moving mice during elevated plus maze

(EP) exploration (Fig. 5a; n = 11 dmPFC and 9 BLA electrodes from 5 *Vmat1*[WT], n = 6

and 6 electrodes from 4 *Vmat1*[Thr/Thr] and n = 10 and 7 electrodes from 4 *Vmat1*[Ile/Ile]

mice). The histological confirmation of electrode positions and raw LFP signals were

shown in Fig. 5b and c, respectively. Power spectral analysis of WT mice revealed

lower 4–7 Hz power in both dmPFC and BLA during exploration of the EP open arms

compared to close arms, suggesting a relationship with anxiety-like behavior (Fig. 5d).

Further, the Granger causality test revealed the directionality of 4–7 Hz oscillations

from the mPFC to BLA (Fig. 5e; n = 20 electrode pairs from 5 *Vmat1*[WT] mice),

consistent with anatomical evidence that the dmPFC preferentially projects to the BLA

[45,46] and that mPFC theta oscillations drive BLA neuronal activity [44]. Based on these

observations, we compared 4–7 Hz power in dmPFC and BLA among genotypes. Both

WT and *Vmat1*[Thr/Thr] mice exhibited significantly lower LFP 4–7 Hz signal power in

292 dmPFC and BLA under the anxiogenic condition of open arm exploration compared to

293 closed arm exploration, while $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice showed no such consistent activity

294 pattern in the BLA (Fig. 5f), suggesting that anxiety-related neuronal mechanisms in the

295 dmPFC–BLA circuit are disrupted by the $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ genotype.

296   Lohoff and colleagues reported that the Ile variant enhanced DA uptake and

297 increased amygdalar activity in response to threat-related stimuli in humans [16].

298 Additional studies are required to reveal the precise association between these LFP

299 changes and amygdalar output in $Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice. In light of our behavioral results, we

300 suggest that $Vmat1^{Ile}$ may promote the activity of neurons that dampen anxiety, such

301 those projecting from the BLA to the central amygdala [47,48].

303 **Amygdala-specific transcriptomic and neuronal changes associated with anxiety**

304 **imply intra- and inter-species differences in emotion and social behavior**

305 One of the major findings of this study is that $Vmat1$ genotype affected transcriptomic

306 regulation and neuronal activity primarily in the amygdala. Given that amygdalar DA

307 signaling is a powerful modulator of fear and anxiety [49], these alterations in gene

308 expression and oscillatory neuronal activity likely contribute to the observed reduction

309 in anxiety-like behaviors among $Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice compared to WT mice. The abnormal

310 neuronal activity pattern detected in the amygdala but not PFC of $Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice may

311 stem from a difference in VMAT1 expression levels across the brain. Previous studies

312 verified that $VMAT1$ mRNA and protein expression levels are relatively high in the

313 amygdala compared to other brain regions in both rats and humans [18,50]. Our

314   transcriptome analysis also revealed higher expression of *Vmat1* in the amygdala than in

315   the striatum ($P = 0.0097$, Dunnett's test; Supplementary Fig. S25). In contrast, *Vmat2*

316   expression was comparable across regions (Supplementary Fig. S25), indicating

317   distinctive regional regulation between subtypes as shown in a previous study [40].

318   Neuronal circuits within the amygdala store associations between

environmental cues and adverse stimuli as changes in synaptic strength, and these

modified circuits drive the expression of emotion-related behaviors and physiological

responses. Thus, the amygdala is a critical regulator of emotional and social behaviors

[51], and in fact amygdalar dysfunction is implicated in a number of neuropsychiatric

disorders [52–54]. Although it is an evolutionarily primitive brain region with relatively

well conserved gross structure and general function across species [48], recent studies

have provided evidence for more subtle structural and/or functional differences within

and among species potentially linked to differential regulation of monoaminergic

signaling via VMAT1. The size of the amygdala has been shown to correlate with

creativity [55] , mental state inference [56], and the size and complexity of social networks in

humans [57] and non-human primates [58]. The DA response in the medial amygdala

network is associated with mother‑infant bonding [59]. Collectively, these findings

strongly suggest a substantial contribution of the amygdala to evolution of the human

social brain by acting as a hub among brain networks associated with emotion,

cognition, and communication [60].

334   Given the limited number of samples and brain regions, there may be inter-

genotype differences in the transcriptome and neurological characteristics that have not

yet been detected. This might explain why we found little difference in the

transcriptome between $Vmat1^{Thr}$ and $Vmat1^{Ile}$ mice, unlike the results of the

neurological and behavioral studies. In the future, spatiotemporal transcriptomics and

electrophysiological recordings would thus be needed to solve this problem.

A single substitution in humanized mouse models highlight molecular and

neurological evolution underlying human emotional traits

Genetic deletion (KO) and overexpression have become predominant strategies for

examining the neurological, behavioral, and pathogenic functions of specific genes.

However, gene deletion and overexpression may alter the expression levels of many

additional genes, and thus the observed phenotype may be distinct from that induced by

target-specific pharmacological manipulations. The present study employed an

alternative "knock-in" strategy of a non-synonymous $Vmat1$ mutation and succeeded in

capturing moderate differences in transcriptomic, neuronal, and behavioral phenotypes.

Noticeably, the variant evaluated is a human-specific substitution (i.e., Thr136Ile of

$VMAT1$) under selection that is not possessed by other mammals (Fig. 1a). This knock-

in model thus provides a unique opportunity to examine the molecular and neurological

mechanisms that distinguish human behavior from that of other primates. Such

extensive functional analysis of a single mutation has been limited to a few genes such

as $FOXP2$ [26,61] and never for effects on emotional traits. To the best of our knowledge

[62], this is the first to suggest a new experimental strategy for studies on the evolution of

human brain mechanisms underlying emotion and related behavioral traits.

Recent genome-wide association studies (GWAS) on psychiatric disorders

such as depression [63] and schizophrenia [64], and on specific personality traits [65] have not

detected VMAT1 as a top hit despite alleged associations with the phenotypes under

study[20,66]. This may indicate that VMAT1 has a weaker influence on phenotype than

other significant loci, or that this gene must interact with other loci (epistasis) and/or

environmental factors (G × E interaction) for measurable effects on phenotype. Such

dependence on other genes or external factors could obscure phenotypic associations of

VMAT1 evaluated by conventional approaches of GWAS. In fact, we found that a

single amino acid substitution (Asn133Ile) altered the expression of 56 genes within the

amygdala, any or all of which may contribute to the observed changes in behavioral

phenotype. The effects of various environmental factors (which were largely controlled

in this experiment through group housing and shared dams) and DEGs on these

behavioral and neurological phenotypes would warrant further study.

Concluding remarks

The present study utilized the CRISPR/Cas9 system in mice to demonstrate that the

human *VMAT1* 136Ile mutation can markedly alter emotional behavior, leading to a less

anxious and less neophobic behavioral trait. This phenotypic variation might help

explain our unique penchant for exploration as well as our complex social relationships.

We additionally show that these behavioral changes stem at least in part from the ripple

effects of this humanized substitution on gene expression and neuronal activity within

the amygdala. First, comprehensive behavioral tests confirmed a similar behavioral

effect of this mutation in mice as observed in humans, where $Vmat1^{Ile}$ ($Vmat1^{Thr/Ile}$ and

$Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$) is associated with lower levels of anxiety. Second, electrophysiological

recordings revealed altered neuronal oscillation patterns in the amygdala of $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$

mice under anxiogenic conditions (i.e., open arms of the elevated plus maze), which

likely contributes to the behavioral phenotype. Third, transcriptome analysis of the

$Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mouse amygdala revealed altered expression of several dozen genes

implicated in neural development and emotional control, consistent with the observed

behavioral changes. Collectively, our results exemplify the utility of this knock-in

mouse model for studies on human brain evolution and the mechanisms underlying

emotions and neuropsychiatric diseases.

Methods

Multiple sequence alignments and phylogenetic tree of *VMAT1*

Two hundred sixty-three orthologous sequences of vertebrate *SLC18A1* (*VMAT1*) were

obtained from Ensembl101. After aligning the sequences using webPRANK [67] with

default parameters, we calculated the proportions of amino acids identical to the human

VMAT1 within aligned protein regions. Sequences with < 50% identity were then

excluded. In the case of multiple sequences for a given species, that with the highest

proportion of identical amino acids to human *VMAT1* was . A phylogenetic tree was

then constructed from the 236 species sequences with > 50% identity to human *VMAT1*

using IQTREE v2.1.1 [68] with the "-nt AUTO" setting, including the Neanderthal

sequence, which we constructed by replacing 136Ile in the human reference sequence

with 136Thr. Phylogenetic relationship was visualized using iTOL v5.6.3 [69] through a

web interface (https://itol.embl.de). Animal silhouettes were obtained from phylopic

(http://phylopic.org/) under Public Domain license.

***In silico* prediction of mVMAT1 structure and tolerance of mutated residues**

Homology modeling of the mouse VMAT1 (mVMAT1) protein structure was

performed using the SWISS-MODEL [70] web server (http://swissmodel.expasy.org). The

human organic anion transporter MFSD10 (PDB: 6s4m.1.A) was selected as the best

template, with sequence identity of 17.04 (verified June 2020) and QMEAN score of –

8.40 according to SWISS-MODEL. The predicted 3D structure of mVMAT1 was

visualized using PyMOL 2.4.1 (DeLanoScientific, San Carlos, CA). Provean v1.1.3 [71]

and SIFT [72] were used to estimate the intolerance for individual amino acid mutations

introduced in mVMAT1 based on the evolutionary conservation and the chemical

properties of the exchanged residues. The computations were made using the Provean

web server (http://provean.jcvi.org/protein_batch_submit.php?species=mouse; last

accessed June 2020). A mutation is predicted as deleterious (i.e., likely to affect its

protein function) when the Provean score is smaller than -2.5 or the SIFT score is

smaller than 0.05. Furthermore, we used DynaMut [73] to evaluate the effects of

humanized mutations on the stability and flexibility of VMAT1 protein structure.

Briefly, DynaMut enables accurate assessment of mutation impact on protein stability

by implementing and integrating well established normal mode approaches with graph-

based signatures in a consensus predictor [73]. Here we focused on two measurements: 1)

folding free energy ($\Delta\Delta G$), an index of the difference in stability between WT and

mutant proteins in which positive values represent increased stability of the mutant, and

2) Δ vibrational entropy energy ($\Delta\Delta$SVib ENCoM), a per-site index of the difference in

flexibility between WT and mutant proteins. Calculations were conducted using a web

server (http://biosig.unimelb.edu.au/dynamut/).

Ethical approvals

All animal care protocols and experiments were conducted according to guidelines by

the Animal Care and Use Committee of the National Institute of Neuroscience, National

Center of Neurology and Psychiatry (approval number: 2017005, 2020007), the Animal

Experiment Committee of Fujita Health University (approval number: APU19063), and

the Experimental Animal Ethics Committee of the University of Tokyo (approval

number: P29-14). All efforts were made to minimize the suffering of mice.

Generation of *Vmat1*-humanized mouse models by CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing

Preparation of the CRISPR components and donor DNAs

The target region within the mouse *Vmat1* exon 4 was first analyzed by using the web-

based CRISPR design tool CRISPOR [74] (http://crispor.org), to select a guide RNA

sequence for replacing mouse 133Asn with 133Thr or 133Ile via the CRISPR/Cas9

system with minimal risk of off-target cleavages. Then, two parts of the CRISPR guide

RNA, crRNA and tracrRNA (shown in Fig. 2a, Supplementary Fig. S1a, and

Supplementary Table S1), were chemically synthesized and purified by reversed-phase

column chromatography (FASMAC, Japan). Recombinant Cas9 protein (EnGen Cas9

NLS from *Streptococcus pyogenes*) was purchased from New England Biolabs

(Ipswich, MA). The single-strand DNA (ssDNA) donors containing the humanized

substitution and the restriction enzyme recognition sites flanked by 42–50 bp homology

arms (Supplementary Table S1) were subsequently designed and chemically

synthesized by Eurofins Genomics (Tokyo, Japan). In addition to the intended

humanization, the synonymous substitutions depicted in Fig. 2a were introduced near

the 133rd site to prevent unwanted re-editing. For 133Thr substitution, an *Eco*RI site

was synonymously integrated into the protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) sequence to be

destroyed. An *Fsp*I site was similarly incorporated within the guide RNA target

sequence for the 133Ile allele. These synonymous substitutions also made the

genotyping procedure much easier by eliminating the need for laborious sequencing

(Fig. 2b).

Electroporation of mouse one-cell embryos

One-cell-stage embryos were collected by *in vitro* fertilization using C57BL/6J super-

ovulated females (Charles River, Japan) and stud males. The guide RNAs, Cas9

proteins, and the donor ssDNAs were electroporated into mouse zygotes following the

standard protocol [75] to obtain founder knock-in mice (Supplementary Fig S1a).

PCR Genotyping and sequencing analyses

Genomic DNAs were prepared from the newborn mouse tail by treatment with

proteinase K in Lysis Buffer. The 133Thr and 133Ile knock-in founders were screened

by PCR-RFLP assay (Supplementary Fig. S1c). Briefly, PCR products were amplified

using the primer pairs depicted in Fig. 2a (also listed in Supplementary Table S1) and

then digested by *Eco*RI or *Fsp*I, respectively. For founders and F1 generations, PCR

products were also analyzed by Sanger sequencing to confirm the correct substitution

allele. After that, PCR-RFLP could be used reliably for genotyping of subsequent

generations.

Off-target analyses of founder mice

To exclude the possible side effects from off-target cleavages, the genomic DNAs

extracted from the founder mice (133Thr No.1 and 133Ile No.10, shown in

Supplementary Fig. S1c and d) were analyzed by Sanger sequencing. We employed

CRISPOR [74] (http://crispor.org) to predict potential off-target candidate loci, and the 12

loci identified (Supplementary Table S2) were amplified by PCR using the primers

listed in Supplementary Table S1 and sequenced (results are shown in Supplementary

Fig. S2).

Preparation of humanized mouse models for behavioral tests, transcriptome analyses,

and neurophysiological analyses

After confirming the absence of off-target cleavages, 133Thr founder No.1 and 133Ile

founder No.10 were crossed with WT C57BL/6J mice to obtain heterozygous F1

generations, which were again verified to possess the designed substitutions by Sanger

sequencing. Homozygous 133Thr and 133Ile mice after F2 generations were then

selected and maintained. For behavioral tests, F5 or F6 homozygous mice were crossed

to obtain Thr/Thr, Thr/Ile, and Ile/Ile genotypes. In addition, C57BL/6J WT males and

females carrying the Asn/Asn genotype were crossed to supply control mice. To

eliminate differences in rearing environment, newborn males of the 4 genotypes

(Asn/Asn, Thr/Thr, Thr/Ile, and Ile/Ile) were grouped in sets and nursed by the same

mothers. At 4 weeks old, 20 sets of 4 males, one of each genotype, were weaned and

housed in 20 separate cages. Behavioral tests were conducted between 9 and 55 weeks

of age as indicated (Supplementary Table S3). A subset of these mice (1st batch) was

also used for transcriptome analyses at 42–45 weeks. Likewise, 8 sets of mice (2nd

batch) including all 4 genotypes were generated and used for transcriptome analysis at

15 weeks and electrophysiological recordings at 16–24 weeks.

Animal care and experimental conditions for behavioral tests

Animals were housed in groups of four individuals of each genotype under a 12 h

light/dark cycle (7:00 AM to 7:00 PM) with ad libitum access to food and water. Adult

male mice were used in all tests to eliminate the behavioral effects of the estrus cycle.

Behavioral tests were performed between 8:00 AM and 6:00 PM in a room maintained

at 23°C ± 2°C. Mice were habituated to this experimental room for a minimum of 30

min before testing. The composition of cohorts and ages of the mice for every

experiment are summarized in Supplementary Table S3. All devices used were cleaned

with diluted hypochlorite solution or 70% ethanol after each trial to prevent influences

from residual olfactory cues. To minimize the impact of one test on subsequent tests in

individual mice, behavioral assessments were conducted in the following order after

general health and neurological screens: light/dark transition, open field, elevated plus

maze, hot plate, social interaction in a novel environment, rotarod, Crawley's 3-

chamber social interaction test, startle response/prepulse inhibition, Porsolt forced

swim, T-maze, Barnes maze, tail suspension, fear conditioning, and home cage social

interaction tests. All behavioral tests were conducted at intervals of at least one day.

Behavioral battery tests

General health and neurological screens (GHNS)

The presence of whiskers and bald patches was checked daily to ensure the health status

of mice [76]. The righting, whisker touch and ear twitch reflexes were also evaluated to

insure age-appropriate neurological function. Body weight and rectal temperature were

measured. In addition, neuromuscular function was assessed by grip strength and wire

hanging tests. Briefly, grip strength was measured using a grip strength meter (O'Hara

& Co., Tokyo, Japan). The mouse was positioned to spontaneously grasp a wire grid by

the forelimbs and then pulled backward by the tail until wire release. The peak force

was recorded in Newtons (N). Each mouse was tested three times, and the greatest value

obtained was used for further analyses. In the wire hanging test, a mouse was placed on

a wire mesh at the top of the apparatus (O'Hara & Co.), and the wire mesh was then

gently turned upside down. The mouse gripped the wire in order not to fall off, and the

latency to fall was recorded with a 60 s cut-off time.

Light/dark transition (LD)

The light/dark transition test was conducted to measure anxiety level as previously

described [77]. The apparatus consisted of two equal-sized plastic boxes (20 × 20 cm), one

illuminated (390 ± 20 lx) and the other dark (< 2 lx), separated by a central partition

plate with a small 3 × 5 cm opening allowing the mouse to transit from one box to the

other. A mouse was first placed in the dark box and allowed to freely explore the

apparatus for 10 min. The time to first entry into the light box, time spent in the light

box, number of transitions between boxes, and distances traveled in light and dark

boxes were measured using Image LD software (see "Image analysis of behavioral

tests").

Open field (OF)

Locomotor activity and explorative tendency were measured using an open field

apparatus (40 × 40 × 30 cm; Accuscan Instruments, Columbus, OH) as described

previously [78]. The test chamber was illuminated at 100 ± 5 lx. A mouse was placed in

the corner of the apparatus and total distance traveled (cm), time spent in the center area

(20 × 20 cm), vertical activity, and stereotypic counts over 120 min were recorded by

the VersaMax system and analyzed using Image OF software (see "Image analysis of

behavioral tests").

Elevated plus maze (EP)

An elevated plus-maze test was conducted as previously described [79]. The apparatus

consisted of two open arms (25 cm long × 5 cm wide) crossing two enclosed arms of

identical dimensions but with 15-cm high transparent walls, all connected by a central

platform. The entire apparatus was elevated 50 cm above the floor and illuminated

uniformly at 100 lx. A mouse was placed at the center of the maze, facing one of the

closed arms and allowed to freely explore for 10 min. Number of open and closed arm

entries, distances traveled, proportions of entries into open arms, and proportions of

time spent in open arms were measured using Image EP software (see "Image analysis

of behavioral tests").

Hot plate (HP)

Pain sensitivity was measured by the hot plate test. A mouse was placed on a 55°C hot

plate (Columbus Instruments, Columbus, OH), and latency to escape from the plate was

recorded with a 15-s cut-off time.

Social interaction in a novel environment (SI)

The social interaction test in a novel environment test (one-chamber social interaction

test) was performed as described previously [76]. Two mice of the same genotype but

reared in different cages were placed together in a box (40 × 40 × 30 cm) and allowed to

explore freely for 10 min. Mouse behaviors were recorded with a CCD camera. The

total duration of contact, total number of contacts, total duration of active contact, mean

duration per contact, and total distance traveled were measured automatically using

Image SI software (see "Image analysis of behavioral tests"). Active contact was

defined as maintained contact while either mouse traveled more than 10 cm between

two successive image frames acquired once per second.

Rotarod (RR)

Motor coordination and motor learning were examined using an accelerating rotarod

(UGO Basile, Comerio, VA, Italy). The latency to fall from the rod was recorded during

three daily trials conducted on 2 consecutive days (3 × 2 trials). During each trial, rod

speed was increased from 4 to 40 rpm over the 5-min test period.

Crawley's 3-chamber social interaction (CSI)

Crawley's 3-chamber social interaction test was performed to measure sociability and

social novelty preference [78]. The experimental apparatus was a 41 × 62 cm rectangular

non-transparent gray Plexiglas box separated into three equal-sized chambers (20 × 40

cm) by transparent Plexiglas plates with small openings allowing mice to freely transit

from one chamber to another. One wire cylinder-shaped cage was placed in the corner

of each side chamber. Tested mice (aged 16–19 weeks, see Table S2) were first allowed

to freely explore the chambers for 10 min as a habituation period. A stranger mouse was

then placed randomly in one of the side-chamber wire cages and the tested mouse was

again allowed to freely explore the chambers for 10 min. In a final step, a second

stranger mouse was placed in the wire cage in the opposite side chamber, and the tested

mouse was again allowed to freely explore the chambers for 10 min. Number of

contacts and interaction times with strangers 1 and 2 were recorded using Image CSI

software (see "Image analysis of behavioral tests").

Startle response / prepulse inhibition (PPI)

Sensory-motor integration was tested by a prepulse inhibition test [76], which measures

the effect of an audible pre-tone (prepulse) of variable intensity on the startle response

to a louder pulse. The system used for the detection of startle reflexes (O'Hara & Co.)

consisted of four standard cages placed on a movement sensor within sound-attenuated

chambers with fan ventilation. Before each testing session, acoustic stimuli and

mechanical responses were calibrated using devices supplied by the manufacturer. A

test session was composed of 6 different trial types: two startle stimulus-only trials (110

or 120 db) and four prepulse inhibition trials (74 or 78 db prepulses delivered prior to a

110 or 120 db startle). Six blocks of the six trial types (i.e., 36 trials in total) were

conducted, with each trial type presented once in pseudorandom order within each

block. The PPI (%) was calculated for each trial type according to the following

equation: {[(startle amplitude of trial without prepulse) – (startle amplitude of trial with

prepulse)]/(startle amplitude of trial without prepulse)} × 100.

Porsolt forced swim (PS)

The Porsolt swim test was performed as previously described [76]. The apparatus

consisted of four Plexiglas cylinders (12 cm diameter × 22 cm height) filled with water

(room temperature) up to a height of 7.5 cm. Four mice (a set) were placed individually

in each cylinder, and images were captured at two frames per second for 10 min.

Swimming distance and immobility time (% of total) were recorded automatically using

Image TS software (see "Image analysis of behavioral tests").

Tail suspension (TS)

Mice were suspended 30 cm above the floor in a visually isolated area by adhesive tape

placed approximately 1 cm from the base of tail. Behavior during suspension was

recorded for 10 min using Image TS software (see "Image analysis of behavioral tests").

T-maze (TM) forced alteration

A T-maze forced alternation task was performed as previously described [80]. The T maze

was constructed of three white plastic runways with walls 25-cm high (O'Hara & Co.)

partitioned into 6 areas by sliding doors. The stem of the "T" was divided into a start

compartment area S1 at the intersection with the arms and a main area S2 (13×24 cm).

Similarly, the T arms were divided into passageway areas P1 and P2 with S1 and main

areas A1 and A2 (11×20.5 cm). Each trial consisted of one forced run followed by one

free run. First, the mouse was placed in S2 and forced to proceed in one direction (S2 $\rightarrow$

A2 $\rightarrow$ P2 $\rightarrow$ S1, or S2 $\rightarrow$ A1 $\rightarrow$ P1 $\rightarrow$ S1) by opening the doors successively. After

returning to S1 and a set inter-trial delay, mice were then allowed to choose to enter A1

or A2. If the mouse chose the opposite direction from the previous forced run, it was

counted as a correct response, while if the mouse chose the same direction as the

previous run, it was counted as an incorrect response. After 30 practice trials (10 per

day for 3 consecutive days), trials with delay (4 trials with 3-s delays and 2 trials each

with 30-, 60-, and 120-s delays) were conducted for 3 consecutive days. Data were

acquired and sliding doors controlled automatically using Image TM software (see

"Image analysis of behavioral tests").

Barnes maze (BM)

Spatial learning, spatial memory, and behavioral flexibility were tested using the Barnes

maze as described previously [78]. The maze was a circular whiteboard (1m in diameter)

with 12 holes equally spaced around the margin and elevated 81.5 cm from the floor

(O'Hara & Co.). A black plastic box (17 × 13 × 7 cm) lined with paper cage bedding

was positioned under one of the holes (the target). The board position of the target (1–

12) was constant for a given mouse but randomly assigned across individuals. The

apparatus was illuminated at 800 lx or more. The board was rotated daily so that the

spatial location of the target changed relative to distal visual room cues while proximal

cues were held constant. A training trial was conducted per day over 20 days until 24

trials were completed in total before the 1st probe test. Each trial lasted a maximum of 5

min, and was completed when the mouse entered into the black plastic box. Probe tests

were conducted for 3 min without the black plastic box one day or one month after the

final training trial. The number of errors, latency and distance traveled to reach the

target hole for the first time, the number of omission errors and time spent around each

hole were recorded by Image BM software (see "Image analysis of behavioral tests").

Fear conditioning (FZ)

Contextual and cued fear conditioning tests were conducted and analyzed as described

in a previous study [76]. Mice were placed in a transparent acrylic chamber (26 × 34 × 33

cm, O'Hara & Co.) with 55 dB ambient white noise and 100 lx illumination. In the

conditioning session, the conditioned acoustic stimulus (CS, 55 dB) was presented for

30 s at three times (2, 4, and 6 min), and a mild foot shock (2 s, 0.3 mA) was presented

as the unconditional stimulus (US) at the end of each CS. One day after the conditioning

session, contextual fear was measured in the same chamber, while cued fear was

measured thereafter in a triangular box (33 × 33 × 33 cm) constructed of white opaque

Plexiglas. Mice were placed in the chamber for 3 min with neither CS nor US presented.

Thereafter, the CS (55 dB) was presented for the last 3 min and images were captured at

1 frame per second. Each pair of successive frames in which the mouse moved was

measured. When this measure was below a certain threshold (20 or 30 pixels), the

mouse was considered to be "freezing"; alternatively, when this measure equaled or

exceeded the threshold, the behavior was considered "non-freezing". "Freezing" that

lasted less than 2 s was not included in the analysis. Data acquisition, control of stimuli

(i.e., tones and shocks), and data analysis were conducted automatically using Image FZ

software (see "Image analysis of behavioral tests").

Home cage social interaction test (HCSI)

The 24-hour home cage locomotor activity and social interaction test was conducted as

previously described [81] for one continuous week. The monitoring system included a

standard home cage (29 × 19 × 13 cm) with filtered cage top and an infrared video

camera (O'Hara & Co.). Two mice of the same genotype that had been housed

separately were placed together in the home cage and locomotor activity and social

behavior monitored by video. Social interaction was measured by counting the number

of "particles" (tracers for each mouse) detected in each frame, with two separate

particles indicating no contact and one particle indicating physical contact (i.e., because

the tracking software could not distinguish two separate bodies). Data acquisition and

analysis were conducted using Image HA software (see "Image analysis of behavioral

tests")

Delayed reward task

Following these comprehensive behavioral tests, we conducted an original delayed

reward task to evaluate the impulsivity of $Vmat1^{Thr/Thr}$ and $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice (n = 10 for

both genotypes). In brief, a mouse was housed in a cage (22.5 × 32.5 × 21 cm; FDB-

300W/FDL-8D, Melquest, Toyama, Japan) with controlled access to two separate

feeding trays for 16 days. Consumption of normal food (3.57 kcal/g; CRF-1, Oriental

Yeast Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and high-calorie food (Banana chip containing 5.42

kcal/g; 4515996091582, KALDI COFFEE FARM, Tokyo, Japan), considered small and

large rewards, respectively, were measured daily by weighing the feeding trays. After

habituating mice to this system for 4 days with ad libitum access to both foods, we

programmed feeding tray access so that the normal food was provided for the first 45

min and high-calorie food provided only for the last 15 min of the three 1-h daily

feeding time (7:00–8:00 PM, 10:00–11:00 PM, and 1:00–2:00 AM) for 6 consecutive

days. Under such delayed reward conditions, consumption of the lower-calorie food is

considered an impulsive behavior (i.e., does not maximize reward). Furthermore, to

maximize the impulsivity, we set a fasting day after the 6 days of delayed feeding while

monitoring animal weights (so as not to jeopardize the animal's health) and conducted

the same test again for 5 days.

Image analysis of behavioral tests

We developed in-house programs to analyze the imaging data acquired for many of

these behavioral tests (Image LD, Image OF, Image EP, Image SI, Image CSI, Image

TS, Image TM, Image BM, Image FZ, and Image HA) based on ImageJ (U.S. National

Institutes of Health; available at https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/) and modified for each test by

Tsuyoshi Miyakawa (available through O'Hara & Co.).

Statistical analyses and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

Group means were compared by paired sample *t*-test, unpaired Student's *t*-test, one-way

ANOVA, or pair-wise *t*-test with FDR correction by the Benjamini-Hochberg method

as indicated using R 4.0.2. We obtained comprehensive metrics for two major domains

of mouse behavior, activity and anxiety, by standardizing, normalizing, and combining

sets of related behavioral scores. Total distances traveled in LD, OF, EP, SI, and CSI

were used as indices for activity, while time in the light compartment of the LD shuttle

box, duration in the central area of the OF, time spent in open arms of the EP, and total

duration of active contacts in the SI were used as indices of anxiety. To further confirm

the effects of *Vmat1* genotype on the behavioral composites and to enhance statistical

power and improve reliability, we used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) [82]. The

SEM model included a measurement model and a regression model. The measurement

model consisted of two latent factors grouping tests of locomotor activity and anxiety-

like behavior, which were assessed by the same metrics above. The regression model

evaluated the effect of genotype on the two latent factors. In the best fitted model,

genotype was labeled by the presence of Ile allele as follows: $Vmat1^{\text{WT}} = 0$, $Vmat1^{\text{Thr/Thr}}$

= 0, *Vmat1* $^{\text{Thr/Ile}}$ = 1, and *Vmat1* $^{\text{Ile/Ile}}$ = 1. Goodness of model fit was evaluated by

normed Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

(RMSEA), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and significance

of paths was tested by *t*-test. Normalization of behavioral scores and SEM were

performed using the *bestNormalize* and *lavaan* packages in R, respectively. Availability

of the data and codes used are described in the section **Availability of data and**

materials.

***In vivo* electrophysiological recordings**

Subjects

Five male WT C57BL/6J mice (16–20 weeks old, SLC Shizuoka, Japan) with

preoperative weights of 20–30 g as well as four male *Vmat1*$^{\text{Ile/Ile}}$ mice (16–20 weeks

old) and four male *Vmat1*$^{\text{Thr/Thr}}$ mice (20–24 weeks old) obtained from the 2nd batch

were implanted with intracranial electrodes for *in vivo* electrophysiological recordings.

The animals were housed under a 12 h/12 h light/dark schedule with lights on at 7:00

AM prior to surgery.

Surgery

Animals were anesthetized with isoflurane gas (1%–3%) and 1-mm diameter circular

craniotomies were made using a high-speed drill at the target coordinates. For local

field potential (LFP) recordings, an array of 3 immobile tetrodes was stereotaxically

implanted above the dmPFC (2.00 mm anterior and 0.50 mm lateral to bregma) at a

depth of 1.40 mm and an array of 4 tetrodes was implanted in the amygdala (0.80 mm

posterior and 3.00 mm lateral to bregma) at a depth of 4.40 mm using guide cannulae.

The tetrodes were constructed from 17-μm diameter polyimide-coated platinum–iridium

(90/10%) wire (California Fine Wire, Grover Beach, CA), and the individual electrode

tips were plated with platinum to lower the impedance to 200–250 kΩ. Stainless steel

screws were implanted on the skull attached to the brain surface to serve as

ground/reference electrodes. To prevent brain tissue drying at the implant sites, a

dummy cannula was inserted through the guide cannula and both covered by a cap. The

entire recording device was secured to the skull using stainless steel screws and dental

cement. After all surgical procedures were completed, anesthesia was discontinued, and

the animals were allowed to awaken spontaneously. Following surgery, each animal

was housed in a separate transparent Plexiglas cage with free access to water and food

for at least 7 days before recordings.

Electrophysiological recording

The mouse was connected to the recording equipment via a digitally programmable

amplifier (Cereplex M, Blackrock Microsystems, Salt Lake City, UT) placed close to

the animal's head. For recording electrophysiological signals, the EIB of the microdrive

array was connected to a Cereplex M digital headstage, and the digitized signals were

transferred to a Cereplex Direct data acquisition system. Electrical signals were sampled

at 2 kHz and low-pass filtered at 500 Hz. The animal's moment-to-moment position

was tracked at 15 Hz using a video camera attached to the ceiling.

Elevated plus maze (EP)

The elevated plus maze used during electrophysiological recording was made of ABS

resin and consisted of a central square (7.6 × 7.6 cm) and four arms (each 28 cm long ×

7.6 cm wide), two open arms with no railing and two closed arms enclosed by

transverse walls (15 cm in height). The maze was elevated 30 cm from the floor and

illuminated with two 32-W fluorescent overhead lights, which produced light intensities

of 250 ± 20 lx and 170 ± 20 lx in the open and closed arms, respectively. In a recording

session, a mouse was placed in the center of the central square facing an open arm and

allowed to explore the maze apparatus for 10 min.

Confirmation of electrode locations by histological analysis

The mice were overdosed with isoflurane, perfused intracardially with 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4), and decapitated.

After dissection, the brain was fixed overnight in 4% PFA/PBS and then cryoprotected

by successive overnight incubations in 20% sucrose and 30% sucrose in PBS. Frozen

coronal sections (100 μm) were cut using a microtome, mounted, and processed for

cresyl violet staining. Briefly, slices were rinsed in water, stained with cresyl violet, and

coverslipped with Permount. The positions of all electrodes were confirmed by

identifying the corresponding electrode tracks in histological tissue sections.

Extraction of RNA and RNA sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from the prefrontal cortex, amygdala, and striatum of four

mice per genotype (two 4-month-old and two 10-months-old individuals from batches 1

and 2), yielding 48 samples in total. Cage mates were selected for sequencing when

possible (see Supplementary Fig. S3 and Table S4 for detailed sampling information).

Briefly, mice were habituated to a novel cage for 30 minute and then decapitated under

anesthesia. The indicated brain regions were then isolated using a mouse brain atlas [83]

by the same experimenter. The extracted tissues were homogenized in BioMasher

Standard (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan) and total RNA isolated using the RNeasy® Plus Mini

Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). RNA concentration and purity were assessed using a

Nano-Drop® ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA), and

total RNA integrity quantified by the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies,

Santa Clara, CA). From the 48 RNA samples, 48 cDNA libraries were prepared and 100

bp paired-end reads were sequenced on a DNBSEQ platform at the Beijing Genomics

Institute (BGI, Hong Kong, China). A total of 2,344,530,700 raw sequencing reads were

generated (24–25 million read pairs per sample; Supplementary Table S4) and used for

gene expression profiling.

Data processing

The raw reads were quality checked, trimmed, and filtered using fastp 0.20.0 [84],

yielding 20–21 million filtered reads (Supplementary Table S4). STAR v2.7.5c [85] was

then used for mapping the reads to the reference mouse genome (GRCm38.p6). We

assigned reads to the Ensembl100 annotation and generated fragment counts by the

featureCounts utility of the Subread package (v1.6.3) in R [86].We obtained reads with

mapping quality above 20 (essentially uniquely mapped reads) and only pairs that were

properly aligned on the same chromosome. The fragment counts were then used to

perform differential expression analysis with iDEP v0.91 workflow [87], a web

application that includes several conventional software applications such as DESeq2 [88]

and edgeR [89], and can perform comprehensive analysis of RNA-Seq data. After

normalizing all counts according to effective library size, we retained genes with > 1

count per million (CPM) in half of the samples (24 samples). A total of 13,608 genes

were then assessed in downstream analyses. Principal component analysis (PCA) was

first performed to reveal the overall expression pattern of each sample. While most

samples demonstrated distinct expression patterns, one supposed amygdala sample

(derived from a 4-month-old $Vmat1^{Thr/Thr}$ mouse) exhibited an expression pattern similar

to the other striatal samples (Supplementary Fig. S20). Given the inconsistency in the

expression pattern, we excluded this sample and conducted the normalization step again

for the remaining 47 samples.

Differential expression and weighted gene correlation network analysis

We conducted pair-wise between-genotype comparisons of the same brain regions to

identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs), which were defined by |log2(fold

change)| > 1 and false discovery rate (FDR; corrected by the Benjamini and Hochberg

method) < 0.05. The DEGs were further characterized by enrichment analysis for GO

terms in the iDEP pipeline. An Illumina BaseSpace application

(http://basespace.illumina.com/apps) was used to investigate the correlation in

expression levels of DEGs among currently and previously collected datasets. In this

analysis, we set FDR < 0.05 as cutoff to select genes for input, yielding 131 genes

recognized in total. To identify specific biological pathways affected by *Vmat1*

genotypes, we conducted weighted gene correlation network analysis (WGCNA) [90] of

15 samples from the amygdala. First, we calculated the transcripts per million (TPM)

for each gene, and the expression matrix was then adjusted for mouse batch as a

potential confounding factor. The 1000 genes with most variable expression levels

(largest coefficients of variation) among samples were retained. We chose a soft

thresholding power = 21, as it yielded a scale-free topology fitting index (R squared)

greater than 0.8. The correlations among gene expression levels across samples were

then calculated to detect co-expressing modules. We also calculated the correlations

between the expression levels of a given gene in the amygdala and the behavioral

composite (locomotor activity and anxiety), based on the data of 8 individuals (two for

each genotype). Genes belonging to modules of interest were further included in

protein-protein interaction networks constructed using STRING, and functional gene

clusters were detected by the MCODE module of Cytoscape 3.8.2 [91].

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Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analyzed in the current study are available from the

corresponding author on reasonable request. The raw RNA-Seq reads have been

deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under BioProject accession no.

PRJNA660500. Codes used for RNA-Seq analysis are available on the GitHub

repository: https://github.com/daikisato12/Vmat1_RNASeq.

Authors' contributions

DXS and MK conceived and DXS, YUI, SH, TK, and TS designed the study. DXS,

YUI, TI, TM, TS, and MK acquired funding. YUI and YM conducted genome-editing

experiments with mice. DXS, SH, KN, and TK designed and DXS and SH performed

behavioral tests. DXS analyzed behavioral test results with the help of SH and GS. NK

and TS performed electrophysiological and histological experiments. TS dissected all

the brain samples for RNA-Seq, for which DXS and HH performed data analysis. DXS,

YUI, TI, SH, TS, and MK wrote the manuscript with contributions and revisions from

all authors. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Ethical approval

All animal care protocols and experiments were performed according to guidelines

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1. *In silico* prediction of mVMAT1 tolerance to the humanized mutations

Asn133Thr and Asn133Ile. Text in bold indicates significant effects of the

substitutions as predicted by Provean score < –2.5 or SIFT score < 0.05. The Provean

term "Deleterious" and SIFT term "Damaging" refer to significant effects on protein

function but do not necessarily indicate that they deteriorate protein function. All three

methods predict that 133Ile has greater effects than 133Thr on mVMAT1 function.

Ref.	Alt.	Provean		SIFT		DynaMut	
		Score	Prediction	Score	Prediction	$\Delta\Delta G$ (kcal/mol)	Prediction
Asn	Thr	**-3.27**	**Deleterious**	0.243	Tolerated	-0.062	Destabilizing
Asn	Ile	**-6.55**	**Deleterious**	**0.014**	**Damaging**	1.106	Stabilizing

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1159 **Table 2. List of gene ontology (GO) terms significantly overrepresented in the set**

1160 **of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between $Vmat1^{WT}$ and $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ mice.**

1161 P values were corrected by the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Only terms with $P < 0.05$

1162 are presented. Downregulation indicates $Vmat1^{WT} > Vmat1^{Ile/Ile}$ while upregulation

1163 indicates $Vmat1^{Ile/Ile} > Vmat1^{WT}$.

Direction	Pathways	Genes	adj.Pval
Upregulated	Regulation of cell junction assembly	*Ace*, *Cldn1*, *Enpp2*	5.5×10^{-3}
Downregulated	Locomotory behavior	*Gng7*, *Gpr88*, *Ido1*, *Pde1b*, *Penk*, *Ppp1r1b*, *Rasd2*	7.2×10^{-5}
Downregulated	Behavior	*Asic4*, *Foxp1*, *Gng7*, *Gpr88*, *Ido1*, *Pde1b*, *Penk*, *Ppp1r1b*, *Rasd2*	4.9×10^{-4}
Downregulated	Mononuclear cell differentiation	*Cd4*, *Foxp1*, *Pde1b*	2.8×10^{-3}
Downregulated	Response to amphetamine	*Pde1b*, *Ppp1r1b*, *Rgs9*	2.8×10^{-3}
Downregulated	Multicellular organismal response to stress	*Asic4*, *Gng7*, *Ido1*, *Penk*	2.8×10^{-3}
Downregulated	Cardiac muscle tissue development	*Foxp1*, *Myom3*, *Rarb*, *Rbp4*, *Wnt2*	3.9×10^{-3}
Downregulated	Regulation of cardiac muscle cell proliferation	*Foxp1*, *Rbp4*, *Wnt2*	4.0×10^{-3}
Downregulated	Behavioral fear response	*Asic4*, *Gng7*, *Penk*	4.6×10^{-3}
Downregulated	cAMP catabolic process	*Pde7b*, *Pde10a*	4.8×10^{-3}

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Figure 1. An ultra-conserved residue in VMAT1 exhibits functional variants

unique to humans. (a) A phylogenetic tree constructed by multiple sequence alignment

of the *VMAT1* gene. Almost all genes across 236 vertebrate species retain asparagine

(N, Asn) on the 136th residue, while humans are the only vertebrate species except for

bicolor damselfish (shown in green) with a unique polymorphism (T/I, Thr136Ile;

rs1390938). Note that the phylogenetic relationship presented here is not necessarily

consistent with the known species tree. **(b)** mVMAT1 protein structure predicted by

homology modeling and the effects of human-type mutagenesis (corresponding to

133Thr and 133Ile in mVMAT1). (Left) Δ Vibrational entropy energy between WT

(133Asn) and mutants. Amino acids are colored according to the vibrational entropy

change conferred by the given mutation. Red represents a gain of flexibility and blue

represents a rigidification of the structure. The 133Ile mutation leads to increased

flexibility of the first luminal loop, a receptor-like domain affecting the affinity of

ligands. (Right) When introduced *in silico*, 133Ile but not 13Thr exhibits hydrophobic

interactions (shown by green dotted line) with surrounding sites, which likely influence

the folding and/or stability of mVMAT1 protein. Blue, red, and orange dotted lines

represent amide bonds, hydrogen bonds, and weak van der Waals interactions,

respectively.

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Figure 2. Generation of the *Vmat1*-humanized mouse models by CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing. (a) Targeting strategy for mVMAT1 133Asn humanization. Genetic configuration of the mouse *Vmat1* gene is shown above. Exon 4 encoding 133Asn is enlarged, and the primers used for genotyping (Exon4_F and Exon4_R) are depicted. To replace the mouse 133Asn with 133Thr or 133Ile by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome engineering, a guide RNA with minimum off-target effects was designed. GGG (gray) represents the PAM sequence. In addition to 133Asn humanization, restriction enzyme recognition sites (*Eco*RI and *Fsp*I) were synonymously incorporated to avoid the unwanted re-editing and to simplify genotyping. Sanger sequencing profiles of 133Asn/Asn (WT), 133Thr/Thr, 133Ile/Ile, and 133Thr/Ile are shown on the right. (b) PCR-RFLP assay, in which PCR products amplified using Exon4_F and Exon4_R were

1196   digested by *Eco*RI and *Fsp*I, respectively, could be used to distinguish 4 genotypes

1197   without sequencing.

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Figure 3. Comprehensive behavioral tests reveal distinct behavioral changes in

***Vmat1*Thr/Thr and *Vmat1*Ile mice, including reduced anxiety. (a)** In Crawley's social

interaction test, *Vmat1*Thr/Thr mice preferred a familiar (previously exposed) mouse over

a novel stranger. **(b)** Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) revealed the best fit model to

explain the effects of *Vmat1* genotype on locomotor activity (Act) and anxiety (Anx).

According to the model, *Vmat1*Ile (*Vmat1*Thr/Ile and *Vmat1*Ile/Ile) significantly reduces

anxiety-like behavior. The boxes and circles represent measured and latent variables,

respectively. The paths represent causal relationships on which numerical values

indicate standardized coefficient and the gray-scale intensity of the paths indicates

statistical significance tested by *t*-test. See Methods for the detailed modeling

procedure. **(c)** *Vmat1*Ile mice exhibited lower anxiety than WT and *Vmat1*Thr/Thr

genotypes. See Methods for the detailed calculation of the scores. For the composite

anxiety score, a higher value indicates lower anxiety. Statistical significance was

evaluated by paired *t*-test for **(a),** and by pair-wise *t*-test with FDR correction by the

Benjamini-Hochberg method for **(c)**. Interactive effects of genotype (Ile allele labeled

by 1, and 0 otherwise) and cage place were also assessed by generalized additive model

with quasi-Poisson distribution in **(a)**. †: $0.05 < P < 0.1$, *: $0.01 < P < 0.05$, **: $0.001 <$

$P < 0.01$, ***: $P < 0.001$.

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Figure 4. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the brain among _Vmat1_ genotypes and predicted co-expressing modules. **(a)** The number of DEGs detected by pair-wise comparisons among the four genotypes. All DEGs were found in the amygdala (with none in prefrontal cortex or striatum). **(b)** Correlations between individual DEG expression levels for the WT vs. and _Vmat1_[Ile/Ile] comparison and composite anxiety scores from LD, EP, OF, and SI tests (see Methods). Only genes with strong Spearman's correlations ($P < 0.1$) are shown. The bands are 95% confidence intervals. **(c)** Network dendrogram from co-expression modules based on the expression data of all 47 regional brain samples. Each branch represents an individual gene, and the colors below represent the module, correlation (ρ) with behavioral phenotype (locomotor activity and anxiety), and the relative expression level in the amygdala across genotypes. The samples with asterisks are from mice with behavioral data and

were used to calculate the correlations between expression levels and behavioral

phenotypes. The M1 module (shown in turquoise), showing negative correlations with

anxiety score exhibited significant overrepresentation of the DEGs detected between

WT and *Vmat1*$^{\text{Ile/Ile}}$ mice. **(d)** Protein–protein interaction networks among the genes in

M1. The DEGs detected between WT and *Vmat1*$^{\text{Ile/Ile}}$ mice are shown in red. The

thickness of the line indicates the strength of data support analyzed by STRING.

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Figure 5. Wild-type and *Vmat1*[Thr/Thr] mice, but not *Vmat1*[Ile/Ile] mice, exhibit a

reduction in amygdalar 4–7 Hz local field potential (LFP) power under anxiogenic

conditions. (a) (Left) LFP recordings were simultaneously performed from the

dorsomedial prefrontal cortex (dmPFC) and basolateral amygdala (BLA). (Right)

Histological confirmation of electrode locations in the dmPFC and BLA. **(b)** Typical

LFP signals from the dmPFC and BLA. **(c)** An elevated plus maze (EP) test. **(d)**

Spectrograms of dmPFC (left) and BLA (right) LFP power in (anxiogenic) open arms

relative to closed arms. Data were averaged from all *Vmat1*[WT] mice. The bar above

indicates the 4–7 Hz band, showing pronounced decreases in LFP power in both

regions. **(e)** Spectral Granger causality averaged over 20 dmPFC–BLA electrode pairs.

1250   **(f)** Comparison of dmPFC and BLA LFP 4–7 Hz power (z-scored) between open and

1251   closed arms. *$P < 0.05$, paired *t*-test. Each line represents one electrode.

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