RNAi-based screen for pigmentation in *Drosophila melanogaster* reveals regulators of brain dopamine and sleep

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Summary

The dopaminergic system has been extensively studied for its role in behavior and neurological

diseases. Despite this, we still know little about how dopamine levels are regulated *in vivo*. To

identify regulators of dopamine, we utilized *Drosophila melanogaster* cuticle pigmentation as a

readout, where dopamine is used as a precursor to melanin. We started by measuring dopamine

from known pigmentation mutants (e.g. *tan*, *ebony*, *black*) and then performed an RNAi-based

screen to identify new regulators. We found 153 hits, which were enriched for developmental

signaling pathways and mitochondria-associated proteins. From 35 prioritized candidates, 11 had

an effect on head dopamine levels. Effects on brain dopamine were mild even when the rate-

limiting synthesis enzyme *Tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)* was knocked down, suggesting changes in

dopamine levels are tightly regulated in the nervous system. We pursued two of our hits that

reduced brain dopamine levels, *clueless* and *mask*. Further examination suggests that *mask*

regulates transcription of *TH* and affects dopamine-dependent sleep patterns. In summary, by

studying genes that affect cuticle pigmentation, we were able to identify genes that affect

dopamine metabolism as well as a novel regulator of behavior.

Keywords: *Drosophila melanogaster*, dopamine, pigmentation, RNAi, screen, *mask*, sleep

Introduction

Dopamine is a conserved neurotransmitter that functions in the nervous system to regulate a variety of behaviors, including learning & memory, locomotion, reward, and sleep. In humans, disruptions in dopamine have been associated with neurological and neuropsychiatric disorders, including addiction, depression, sleep disorders, and schizophrenia.[1–3] In addition, one of the hallmarks of Parkinson's disease is early degeneration of dopaminergic neurons, and Parkinson's patients are often given a dopamine precursor, l-dihydroxyphenylalanine (L-DOPA), as a method for treating symptoms.[4,5] Most genetic research on dopamine biology has focused on dopaminergic signaling and transport. However, changes in dopamine levels can have a great impact on behavioral outcomes.[6–8] Thus, identifying genes that affect dopamine levels is critical to understanding and potentially treating dopamine-associated disorders.

Dopamine synthesis is a conserved process, whereby the amino acid tyrosine is converted into L-DOPA via the rate-limiting enzyme, Tyrosine hydroxylase (TH).[9] Then, L-DOPA is converted into dopamine via the enzyme Dopa decarboxylase (Ddc).[10] In mammals, dopamine is degraded via oxidation or methylation using the enzymes Monoamine oxidase (MAO) and Catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT).[11] In invertebrates, dopamine degradation goes through β-alanylation via the β-alanyl amine synthase (encoded by the *ebony* gene in *Drosophila melanogaster*) and acetylation via the acetyltransferase (encoded by the *speck* gene in *Drosophila*).[12] In addition, insects also convert dopamine into melanin to form proper cuticle pigment and structure. [13–15]For example, knockdown of *TH* (also known as *pale (ple)* in *Drosophila*) or *Ddc* leads to a paler cuticle, and reduction of *ebony* or *speck* leads to a darker cuticle.[13–15]

Historically, *Drosophila* has been used to study dopamine biology in multiple contexts. In particular, the fly has been instrumental in dissecting the role of dopamine in learning and

memory.[16,17] Moreover, an extensive genetic toolkit has made it a great model system for

dissecting dopaminergic neural circuitry and signaling.[18–20] Lastly, *Drosophila* has been used to

study dopamine-related neurological diseases. In particular, the fly was instrumental in identifying

and investigating the cellular functions of Parkinson disease's genetic risk factors, *PINK1* and

PRKN (i.e. *Pink1* and *parkin* in [21]*Drosophila*).[21]

As well as being a tool for dissecting neural circuitry, the fast generation time and low

maintenance cost makes *Drosophila* a great system for large-scale screening. Previously, a RNAi

screen (11,619 genes, ~89% of genome) was performed to identify genes that affect

mechanosensory organs and cuticle formation in the *Drosophila* thorax.[22] In this screen, the

researchers found 458 genes that affected cuticle color upon knockdown, but no further validation

was performed.

Here, we utilize the fly cuticle to identify novel regulators of dopamine. We start by

systematically examining classical pigmentation genes for their effect on dopamine in the head

and brain. These experiments revealed that genes involved in dopamine synthesis cause the

expected reduction in dopamine. On the other hand, genes involved in dopamine degradation

either have no effect or unexpectedly show reduced dopamine. We go on to characterize 458

genes identified from the RNAi screen by Mummery-Widmer et al. (2009). We tested 330 of them

with independent RNAi lines and validated 153 genes (~46%) with consistent cuticle pigmentation

defects. We go on to examine 35 prioritized gene hits for their effect on dopamine levels. From

this analysis, we found two genes, *mask* and *clu*, that reduced brain dopamine levels upon

knockdown in dopaminergic neurons. Lastly, we used molecular biology and sleep behavioral

studies to show that *mask* appears to alter brain dopamine through regulation of *TH* transcription.

Results

Drosophila pigmentation genes affect dopamine in unexpected ways

To systematically test if changes in pigmentation genes affect dopamine as theorized in

the field, we characterized loss-of-function alleles of genes involved in dopamine metabolism

(Figure 1A) for pigmentation phenotypes and dopamine levels. Since the enzymes required for

dopamine synthesis (TH and Ddc) are essential for survival,[23,24] we took advantage of established

RNAi lines and UAS/GAL4 system.[25–28] It is known that reduction of *TH* or *Ddc* causes pale

pigmentation and reduced dopamine.[9,10,14] We validated our method by knocking down *TH* in the

middle thorax using *pnr-GAL4* along with a verified RNAi,[29] which causes a strong pale cuticle

phenotype (Figures 1B and 1C). We measured dopamine using HPLC, and in our hands, this

RNAi reduces head dopamine levels by ~60% (Figure 1E) and brain dopamine levels by ~32%

(Figure 1E'). *Ddc* knockdown causes a weaker effect than *TH* RNAi in the cuticle (Figures 1B and

1D) and the head (~35% dopamine reduction, Figure 1E) and has no significant effect on

dopamine in the brain (Figure 1E'). This may be due to the strength of the RNAi and/or enzyme

level requirements (since TH is the rate-limiting enzyme).

To test genes implicated in dopamine degradation and cuticle development (i.e.

pigmentation and structural rigidity), we examined known mutant alleles. These alleles cause

darker or paler cuticles (Figures 1F-1L and 1F'-1L') depending on their role in melanin

metabolism. Unexpectedly, *black*, *speck*, *straw* and *yellow* mutants reduce head dopamine levels

(measured using HPLC, Figure 1Q), while *ebony* and *tan* mutants had no significant effect (Figure

1Q). Next, we checked the brain expression patterns of pigmentation enzymes. Based on our

own expression analysis (Figures 1M-1P) and previously reported expression data,[30,31] most are

expressed in the fly brain, but their expression does not appear to overlap with DANs. None of

these pigmentation gene mutations had a significant effect on brain dopamine (Figure 1R).

Together this data shows that changes in dopamine synthesis cause a paler cuticle, which

reflects a reduction in dopamine, but changes in dopamine metabolism enzymes downstream of

dopamine synthesis have pigmentation phenotypes that do not correlate with brain dopamine

level differences.

RNAi-based cuticle pigmentation screen

Mining a previously published genome-wide scale RNAi screen,[22] we identified 458 genes

with pigmentation defects. To check if these phenotypes can be reproduced, we located 718

additional UAS-RNAi lines corresponding to 330 genes. 426 lines came from the National Institute

of Genetics in Mishima, Japan,[32] and 292 came from the Transgenic RNAi Project (TRiP) at

Harvard Medical School.[25] 153 genes caused pigmentation defects in at least one additional RNAi

line, which validates the results for 46.4% of the previous screen's RNAi lines (VDRC collection,

Figure 2A).

Our RNAi-based secondary screen produced a spectrum of phenotypes (Figure 2B), but

the phenotypes strengths (mild, moderate, or strong) were equally represented (mild = 38%,

moderate = 33%, strong = 29%, Figure 2D). Pigmentation color changes were classified in three

primary categories, pale, dark, or mix (a combination of pale and dark in a single thorax), which

were not equally represented (Figure 2E). Dark cuticle phenotypes were the most common (56%),

with pale and mixed cuticle phenotypes seen in 28% and 16% of genes, respectively.

We performed a protein-network analysis (Figure 2C) and found a group of proteins

previously linked to cuticle pigmentation as well as clusters related to RNA processing, ubiquitin

proteasome system, mitochondria-associated proteins, and signaling pathway genes, Hippo and

EGF (epidermal growth factor) signaling in particular. GO enrichment analysis highlighted terms

associated with cuticle pigmentation, protein stability, and several signaling pathways (Figure S1).

We also observed that 85% of our genes were conserved between *Drosophila* and human, an

enrichment from the 68% of conserved genes in the original screen gene list (11, 619, Figures 2F

and S2).

In summary, the cuticle pigmentation screen identified a spectrum of pale, dark and mixed

phenotypes in 153 genes, showing a validation of ~50% from the original screen. Close

examination of these hits highlights conserved molecular processes.

Many pigmentation genes isolated have a neurological consequence

To investigate if our gene candidates have a neurological consequence, we first checked

if their homologs are associated with a neurological disease. Importantly, we defined homologs

or conserved genes as genes where an ortholog prediction algorithm (DRSC Integrative Ortholog

Prediction Tool) had a human gene with a score greater than or equal to three. We found that

51.2% of the fly gene homologs are associated with a disease, 78% of those have at least one

disease with neurological phenotypes (Table 1 and Figure S2), such as intellectual disability,

autism spectrum disorder, ataxia, epilepsy, and cerebral atrophy.

Since dopamine is known to regulate locomotion and sleep,[22,33] we screened for

locomotion and sleep defects using the Drosophila Activity Monitor (DAM).[34] We tested 274 RNAi

lines from the NIG, TRiP, and VDRC RNAi collections corresponding to the validated 153 gene

hits.[35–37] We scored the lines for total locomotion, total sleep, sleep bout length, and sleep latency

during the night and day (Figure 3). There was a broad range in the RNAi lines for each of these

phenotypes (Figure 3C). We classified RNAi lines as "outliers" if they were two standard

deviations from the mean for a given phenotype (locomotion: 23 lines, total sleep: 20 lines, sleep

bout length: 21 lines, sleep latency: 25 lines). While total sleep and locomotion strongly

overlapped with each other, sleep latency and sleep bout length did not overlap with the other

sleep phenotypes (Figure 3D). We assessed if certain gene categories (>10 genes) showed any

distinct behavioral patterns (Figure 2C). There was no change in total locomotion or total sleep in

the categories assessed (Figures 3F and 3G). However, each category showed a distinct pattern

in sleep bout length and latency (Figures 3F and 3H). This could indicate a distinction in how

different gene functions could affect sleep. Since genes that affect sleep can often show distinct

phenotypes (e.g. total sleep, bout number, latency, etc.) at distinct times of day,[38] any gene with

one phenotype during the day or night was classified as an "outlier". This produced 60 lines,

corresponding to 50 genes.

Taken together, 77 of our 132 conserved genes are likely to have a neurological function,

because they are implicated in human neurological disease (52 conserved genes) or were

classified as a behavioral "outlier" (45 conserved genes).

169 11 genes alter dopamine levels in the fly head

To prioritize our gene list for dopamine measurement, we classified which of our genes

were conserved in humans, as previously noted (132 conserved/153 pigmentation genes). Then,

we prioritized these based on whether knockdown of these genes showed a strong pigmentation

effect (38 genes), a behavioral effect in the DAM (45 genes), and/or a human neurological disease

association (52 genes). 72% (95/132 conserved genes) were represented in one of these

categories, and 29% (39/132) were represented in at least two (Figures 4A). We classified genes

in two or more categories as priority hits and tested them for changes in dopamine using High

Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC). We repeated previous results showing that

knocking down *TH* or overexpressing a *TH* cDNA using *TH-GAL4* significantly reduces or

increases head dopamine without effecting serotonin (Figures 4B and 4C).[29]

We found that 11 of 35 prioritized genes (note: some not tested due to lethality or stock

issues) significantly altered head dopamine levels (Figures 4D and 4E). Since control NIG lines

showed about ~80% dopamine levels compared to the TRiP collection (Figure S3), we compared

the DA levels to control lines appropriate for each collection (e.g. UAS-lacZ RNAi). Unlike cuticle

pigmentation, where 65% of genes caused a dark cuticle (excludes mixed cuticle phenotype),

most genes trended toward a reduction in dopamine (71%, 25/35, Figures 4F and 4G). There was

no correlation between the cuticle color and the dopamine level in the fly head (Figure 4H).

In summary, our HPLC analysis on fly heads revealed 11 genes that significantly affect

dopamine levels. We saw a trend in reduction in dopamine across all lines tested, and we

observed no correlation between cuticle color and dopamine level.

Brain studies reveal *mask* and *clueless* as regulators of brain dopamine

To determine which of the 11 gene hits have consequences in the brain, we examined if

their expression [39-41]overlapped with DANs. Looking at single-cell mRNA sequencing datasets,

we saw that 10 of our genes overlapped with some DANs (Figure S5), though the expression

overlap varied. *PIG-A* and *Sos* showed only ~3% overlap, and *Bsf* and *mask* showed 28% and

35% overlap with [42,43]DANs, respectively.[42,43] For five of our genes, we were able to examine their

expression using available T2A-GAL4 lines.[39-41] We found variability in the percentage of DANs

with overlapping expression, but three of them (*Bsg*, *ClC-c*, and *PIG-A*) overlapped with ~75% of

DANs, *rk* overlapped with ~45%, and mask overlapped with ~66% of the examined DAN clusters

(Figures S5, S6, 5A, 5B-D, and 5B'-D'). For *clu*, we were able to examine expression using a

protein trap line.[44,45] We saw that clueless protein appears to be enriched in DANs (Figures 5E,

5F-5H and 5F'-5H').

The *TH-GAL4* line commonly used for dopamine studies misses a large portion of DANs,

particularly in the PAM cluster (~87 DANs missed/~142 total DANs per hemisphere),[46] making it

not ideal for quantifying total changes in brain dopamine. We recombined the *TH-GAL4* with

another driver that hits a large portion of the PAM cluster neurons (*GMR58E02-GAL4 or R58-*

GAL4)[18] generating a recombined line (labelled *TH,R58-GAL4*) that hits ~95% of DANs (Figure

S4). We microdissected adult fly brains and measured dopamine for our 11 gene hits. Most of

them showed no change in brain dopamine (Figure S5), but *mask* (*multiple ankyrin repeats single*

KH domain) and *clueless* (*clueless*) knockdown reduced total brain dopamine for two independent

RNAi lines ([44,45]Figures 5I).

In summary, our fly brain analysis revealed that at least six (*Bsg*, *ClC-c*, *clueless*, *mask,*

PIG-A, *rk*) of our gene candidates show co-expression with TH, but only two genes (*clueless* and

mask) significantly altered brain dopamine upon knockdown in the majority of DANs.

mask regulates Tyrosine Hydroxylase and alters sleep in a dopamine-dependent manner.

To test if *clu* and *mask* knockdown could be due to DAN loss, we quantified the number

of DANs in several clusters.[46] There was no difference in neuron number for any cluster examined

(Figures 5L and S6). Since our pigmentation gene study revealed that only the manipulation in

TH reduced brain dopamine (Figure 1), we examined if knocking down our genes affect TH.

Knockdown of *mask* led to a significant reduction in *TH* mRNA level for one RNAi (50% reduction),

with the other RNAi trending (20-30% reduction, Figure 5J). Upon examining TH protein levels in

DAN clusters, two clusters showed significant reduction in TH protein level, with other clusters

showing a trend in TH protein reduction (PAL and PPM2/3, Figures 5K and S6). To assess

behavioral consequences, we performed additional sleep analysis on *mask*. Dopamine is a wake-

promoting agent, and complete loss of dopamine in the brain significantly increases sleep.[47,48]

Knocking down *TH* using the *TH-GAL4* did not significantly alter total levels of sleep during light

or dark periods (Figure S7), which may be due to the selective expression of the GAL4 or the

partial reduction of dopamine (Figure 4C). However, two hours before light onset, there was a

significant increase in sleep, accompanied by a reduction in the locomotor activity that anticipates

light . Similarly, knockdown of *mask* with the TH-GAL4 showed a highly consistent reduction in

light anticipation (Figures 6A, 6B, 6B', and S8). When we feed the flies L-DOPA, the effect is no

longer seen (Figures 6C and S8). Additionally, in *Drosophila* caffeine's effects on sleep are

mediated by dopamine through a point that is upstream of L-DOPA.[49] Based on this, we suspected

that *mask* knockdown would ameliorate the effects of caffeine on sleep, since *mask* appears to

reduce the synthesis of *TH*. We saw that caffeine's effect on total sleep and sleep in the dark is

ameliorated upon *mask* knockdown (Figures 6D, 6E, and S8).

Follow up studies on *clueless* showed that *clueless* knockdown increases TH RNA level

by about 1.5-2X, with no effect on TH protein level or TH+ neurons (Figure S9), and while there

was an increase in sleep across several RNAi lines, there is no light anticipation phenotype.

Feeding *TH>clu RNAi* flies L-DOPA was unable to rescue the *clueless* effects on sleep (Figure

S9), suggesting that the effects on dopamine and TH may be a secondary effect. Additionally, the

antioxidant NACA was also unable to rescue the sleep defects seen upon *clueless* knockdown

(Figure S9).

In conclusion, *mask* appears to reduce total dopamine levels and sleep by affecting

transcription of *TH*, while *clueless* is acting through an alternative mechanism.

Discussion

Validation of 148 novel cuticle pigmentation genes

Our RNAi screened confirmed 153 genes that were previously implicated in *Drosophila*

pigmentation – 148 of these genes have not been previously associated with dopamine biology.

Since we observed a strong enrichment for genes involved in pigmentation and tyrosine

metabolism (Figure S1), our screening method effectively identified genes that are involved in the

process of interest.

While prior research has compared genes that overlap with different types of screening

strategies (e.g. chemical mutagenesis vs. RNAi), most RNAi phenotypes from large-scale screens

have not been validated with alternative RNAi lines or collections. The original source RNAi

screen used the lines available at the VDRC stock center.[35,37] Alternative sources for RNAi lines

(i.e. TRiP and NIG) start with different backgrounds, vectors, hairpin lengths, insertion methods,

and/or target different areas of the gene.[36,50] This allows researchers to overcome the off-targeting

and weak silencing seen with RNAi analysis, but to our knowledge, there have been no screens

or meta-analyses to test consistency from different lines. In this study, we found that ~46.4%

(153/330) of genes with a pigmentation phenotype showed a phenotype in an alternative RNAi,

and 87% of those phenotypes showed agreement in pigmentation color, highlighting that

pigmentation as a phenotype is relatively consistent (Figure S10).

Interestingly, 85% of our genes had a homolog, whereas the original RNAi screen list

(11,619 genes) had 68% of genes with a homology (1.25-fold enrichment, Figure S2). This is

striking since dopamine cuticle pigmentation is an invertebrate-specific phenomenon,[12] and the

enrichment suggests this phenotype is relevant for a conserved biological pathway. We propose

that cuticle pigmentation may be a "phenolog" [51]of certain neurological traits in mammals.[51]

269   Protein-protein interaction network highlights unexpected gene associations

When we investigated what kind of gene categories were found in the pigmentation

screen, we saw clusters that are associated with ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS), RNA

processing, mitochondria, and developmental signaling pathways. Each of these processes could

be relevant to dopamine biology. For example, there is some evidence that the UPS system

regulates TH levels in the mammals since inhibition of the UPS system has been shown to

increase the TH protein in a PC12 rat cell line.[52,53] In addition, changes in RNA processing could

indicate changes in the dopamine synthesis enzymes TH and Ddc since these enzymes undergo

RNA processing to create two different isoforms.[54] The TH isoforms differ in tissue expression

and kinetics.[55] In mammals, post-transcriptional trafficking of TH mRNA and translational

regulation has been suggested to be important for its function.[56]

We identified 12 genes that are known to function at the mitochondria, mostly in the

electron transport chain (*ND-13B*, *ND-42*, *COX5A*), mitochondrial mRNA translation (*mRpL47*,

mRpL48, *CG4679*), and mitochondrial protein localization (*CG8728*, *clu*, *mask*, *Mpcp2*). It is well-

known that the mitochondria have a key role in dopamine metabolism in mammals since MAO

acts in the mitochondria to degrade dopamine. However, there is no known MOA homolog in

flies.[12] The metabolites for oxidation and methylation of dopamine (DOPAC and HVA) have been

observed in flies though,[57–60] and we saw that dopamine degradation enzyme mutants (*ebony*,

tan, and *speck*)[61,62] had no effect on dopamine in the brain (Figure 1). It is possible that there is

an alternative process that regulates dopamine degradation in the brain, and the mitochondria

may be involved.

The last major group of genes identified from our screen was developmental signaling,

specifically EGF signaling and Hippo signaling. To date, neither EGF nor Hippo signaling have an

established connection with dopamine biology in *Drosophila*. We may have pulled these genes

out is because forming the dorso-central thorax is developmentally regulated.[63–65] However, we

did not identify core components of the other key pathways, such as Notch or Hedgehog,

suggesting that EGF and Hippo are more specifically involved in this pigmentation process.

Cuticle pigmentation phenotypes may not reflect changes in dopamine

The field has generally assumed that a darker cuticle reflects an elevated level of

dopamine.[15,66] However, when we measured dopamine from degradation enzyme mutants using

HPLC, we saw either no effect on dopamine level or reduced level of dopamine in the head. In

addition, when we measured dopamine from the pigmentation genes from the screen, a darker

cuticle did not reflect elevated levels of dopamine in the head. While we were able to increase

dopamine by 3-5 fold upon TH cDNA overexpression in the head (Figure 4C), this phenomenon

was not observable in the brain. One reason could be that there is a selective pressure or a strong

feedback mechanism that prevents elevated levels of dopamine in the nervous system. Since

oxidized dopamine could be toxic,[67] this could be a mechanism to prevent cell toxicity.

Regardless, changes in cuticle pigmentation do not necessarily reflect changes in dopamine level.

Upon seeing alterations of dopamine in the head for some of the classic pigmentation

genes, we tested if this corresponded to changes in the brain. In the case of established dopamine

synthesis genes, we saw a mild reduction in dopamine (~25%) upon knockdown of the rate-

limiting enzyme, *TH*, and no effect upon knockdown of *Ddc*. In addition, we saw no effect on brain

dopamine from dopamine degradation enzymes. Taken together, this suggests that brain

dopamine is under very tight regulation, and effects on the enzymes may be difficult to see in total

dopamine level. It also highlights how our approach will likely miss relevant candidates. In

addition, upon looking at expression in the brain of dopamine degradation enzymes, we saw they

did not overlap well with DANs. It may be that dopamine degradation does not happen in the

neurons since it was hypothesized to occur in the glia.[31,68] However, the expression does not

match a broad glial expression either. For the 11 genes from the pigmentation RNAi screen that

showed altered levels of dopamine, only 2 (18%) of them showed an effect on dopamine in the

brain. These results highlight how head dopamine levels should not be used as a proxy for brain

dopamine levels.

clu and *mask* reduce brain dopamine levels through different mechanisms

Once we identified that knockdown of *clueless* and *mask* both reduced dopamine in the

brain without affecting the number of DANs, we hypothesized that they may be acting through

TH. This is primarily because our initial dopamine metabolism studies showed that only changes

in TH significantly affected dopamine levels in the brain.

mask encodes a scaffolding molecule that functions in multiple contexts.[69–71] In this study,

mask knockdown reduced *TH* mRNA and protein levels, suggesting it acts on TH transcription.

Follow-up behavior analysis showed that *mask* knockdown in DANs led to a highly consistent

change in sleep. Specifically, *mask* knockdown reduced the number of flies that anticipated light.

While fruit flies typically start to wake before light onset,[72] loss of mask in DANs suppresses this

anticipation behavior. Importantly, dopamine has a role in sleep that goes beyond light

anticipation, and complete loss of dopamine causes a global increase in sleep in the day and

night.[73] The phenotype we observe is not this severe, which may be due to the GAL4 driver not

hitting all DANs or the fact that this knockdown is only reducing dopamine by a modest 15-20%

(Figure 5). This is supported by the similar phenotype with the TH RNAi and the DAN driver

(TH>TH RNAi, Figure S7). There may be a circadian component as well. It is plausible that

dopamine synthesis increases before wake at light onset, and manipulations that affect TH levels

may struggle to keep up with the dopamine synthesis required at this time of day.

When we fed *mask* knockdown flies the precursor for dopamine, L-DOPA, this abolished

the effect on light anticipation. We suspect that feeding L-DOPA does not override all sleep-

dependent effects because clueless sleep phenotypes remained when we fed them L-DOPA

(Figure S9). There is evidence that in the fruit fly caffeine affects sleep through TH. Specifically,

Nall et al. showed that caffeine's effect on sleep is absent in TH mutant flies, even if L-DOPA is

given.[49] Since *mask* knockdown affects TH mRNA levels, we tested if mask knockdown would

suppress the effects of caffeine. We found that the reduction in total sleep and sleep during the

dark period normally seen upon caffeine administration were absent upon mask knockdown. This

further supports that mask alters TH levels.

While we do not have any direct evidence for how *mask* may be altering TH levels, *mask*

has been implicated in multiple biological pathways that were highlighted from our screen,

including EGF signaling (e.g. *Egfr*, *Sev*, Raf), Hippo signaling (e.g. *hpo*, *wts*, *mats*), and

mitochondrial biology.[74–77]. Egf and Hippo signaling have well-known transcriptional effects,[78,79]

but whether they may regulate TH transcription directly or indirectly in this context need further

investigation. It is also possible that *mask* is acting in several of these pathways at once, which

causes it to have a strong additive effect that produces a significant change in dopamine in the

whole brain, while knockdown of individual pathways may have more restricted roles (e.g. *Egfr*,

Sos, *hpo*).

In addition to *mask*, we also saw that knockdown of *clueless* leads to significant reduction

in dopamine. However, when we explored the behavioral consequence of *clueless* knockdown, it

did not show the same effect on sleep as *mask* or *TH* knockdown. In addition, the sleep phenotype

was not rescued by L-DOPA, and molecular biology showed that *clueless* knockdown leads to an

increase in TH mRNA with no change in TH protein. Taken together, this indicates that the effect

on dopamine from *clueless* knockdown may be a secondary consequence. *clueless* encodes a

ribonucleoprotein thought to act at the outer mitochondrial membrane to promote proper formation

of protein complexes including mitophagy proteins like Pink1 and Parkin.[80,81] It also interacts with

the ribosome and translocase complex at the mitochondrial membrane suggesting it acts as a

regulator for mitochondrial protein translation and import. [80,82] Knockdown of *clueless* showed no

effect on TH protein level, but since this is a mitochondrial protein, it may be more likely that the

effect on dopamine is through the previously proposed roles of mitochondria in regulating

dopamine levels.

Importantly, our analysis has focused on changes in dopamine caused by changes in

synthesis or degradation. However, dopamine levels can also be regulated by changes dopamine

trafficking through regulators like the dopamine transporter (DAT) or the vesicular monoamine

transporter (VMAT).[12] For example, a null allele of the *DAT, fumin*, causes elevated levels of

dopamine that lead to behavioral phenotypes, including hyperactivity and reduction in sleep.[48]

However, these mutants do not have any cuticle pigmentation defects. While the role of VMAT in

cuticle pigmentation have not been investigated, whether dopamine secretion from the epithelial

cells remains a mystery. Therefore, it would be important to further study whether some of the

hits from our screen may affect dopamine levels through altering dopamine transport via

regulating DAT, VMAT or other mechanisms that regulates dopamine dynamics.

Some regulators of dopamine levels may act locally

When we examined the expression of some of our pigmentation genes in the brain (Figure

S11), we found that many of them do not overlap with all DANs. This indicates that measuring

global changes in dopamine may not be best for determining effects on DA for many of these

genes. They may require targeted dopamine measurements, perhaps through a fixed or live

reporter.[83,84] It is also possible to assess changes in dopamine using behavior, but this would

require detailed assessment for each gene since behaviors are often cluster specific.[85]

In conclusion, our screen of identified novel pigmentation genes, a subset of which were

identified as novel regulators of dopamine *in vivo*. Unbiased forward genetic screens in model

organisms are powerful ways to identify unanticipated links between distinct biological pathways

and provide new molecular handles to study the functional connections between them. Application

of such strategies to the regulation of dopamine levels will likely continue to identify novel factors,

some of which will impact our understanding of human neurological and neurodevelopmental

diseases.

Limitations of the study

One key limitation to this study is that this screening approach will not capture all

regulators of dopamine in the brain. The screen and most of the experiments are based off of

RNAi lines. These lines were not verified for the initial and secondary screens. Some RNAis may

not work. In addition, the RNAis often do not have the same effect as full mutants. For example,

the TH RNAi, which has a known large effect on TH mRNA level (~90% reduction) still only

reduces dopamine by ~30% in the brain. However, the full mutant for TH removes all dopamine

from the brain. In addition to this the initial screen was based on pigmentation, and if a gene that

regulates dopamine in the brain is not expressed in the cuticle, it would not have been captured.

Our secondary screening uses total dopamine levels in the head and brain. It is likely that mild or

cell-type specific changes in dopamine would not be captured through this approach. When we

examined *clu* and *mask*, we focused on regulation through the dopamine synthesis enzymes.

There are many ways that *clu* and *mask* could regulate dopamine, including through genes such

as VMAT and DAT. We cannot rule out dopamine regulation through these alternative

mechanisms.

Resource Availability

410   All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article and its

411   supplementary information files. This study did not generate any new unique reagents.

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426   Authors Contributions

S.Y., E.S.S., A.S., and S.L.D. conceived the experiments. S.Y. and S.L.D. wrote the manuscript.

S.Y., E.S.S., D.B., and S.L.D. conducted the pigmentation screen and DAM behavior analysis

screen. S.L.D. and K.W. conducted the pigmentation mutant analysis experiments. S.L.D., S.B.G,

H.D-S, Y.F., and K.W. conduced the HPLC analysis. S.L.D. and Y.F. performed confocal imaging.

S.L.D. conducted all data analysis. All authors participated in the critical analysis of the

manuscript.

433   Declarations of Interests

434   The authors declare no competing interests.

435   Figure Titles and Legends

Figure 1. Manipulation of pigmentation enzymes have unexpected effects on dopamine.

(A) *Drosophila* dopamine metabolism pathway. Gene names encoding pigmentation enzymes are

in blue and metabolites are in black. (B-D) Thorax phenotypes observed upon knockdown of

Tyrosine hydroxylase (TH, also known as Pale) (C) and Dopa decarboxylase (Ddc) (D) compared

to control (B). (E-E') Dopamine levels, measured using HPLC, from the heads (E) and brains (E')

upon knockdown of *TH* and *Ddc*. Pigmentation phenotypes observed mutant alleles in the thorax

(F-L) and the body (F'-L') (Arrow in I' indicates the darker region characteristic of *speck* mutants).

T2A-GAL4 alleles for *black*, *speck*, and *tan* adult brain expression with dopaminergic neurons

(DAN) staining in magenta (DANs) (M-P). (Q) Dopamine, measured using HPLC, in the heads of

classical pigmentation mutants, *black[1]*, *ebony[1]*, *straw[1]*, and *yellow[1]*. (R) Dopamine levels in

dissected brains of classical pigmentation mutants. Ordinary one-way ANOVA test with Dunlett

multiple comparisons test. *=$p < 0.05$, **=$p < 0.01$, ***=$p < 0.001$, ****=$p < 0.0001$. Error bars show

standard deviation (SD).

Figure 2. RNAi pigmentation screen reveals a broad spectrum of phenotypes and classes

of genes (A) Flow chart depicting screening process. (B) Examples of the phenotypes observed

from the RNAi-based pigmentation screen. (C) Protein-protein interaction network for 153 high

confidence pigmentation gene hits from the RNAi-screen using STRING network analysis.

Strength of line indicates confidence or strength of data support. Genes with no known

interactions are not displayed. (D-F) Pie charts for the 153 pigmentation gene hits, including

strength of phenotype (D), phenotype color (E), and conservation (F).

Figure 3. *Drosophila* Activity Monitor (DAM) screen identifies behavior "outliers" and

highlights distinct phenotypes for gene categories. (A-B) Representative activity and sleep

data measured in a neutral RNAi line (*mCherry RNAi*, A) and a behavioral "outlier" (*Raf RNAi*,

B) knocked down in DANs (*TH-GAL4*). (C) Bar graph showing all RNAi lines tested for 24hr

locomotion and total sleep during the 12hr light period, where light pink/blue represents fly lines

±1SD away from the mean, and dark pink/blue are fly lines ±2SDs away from the mean (a.k.a.

"outliers"). (D) Venn diagram of "outliers" for the four phenotypes examined (sleep latency, sleep

bout length, locomotion, and total sleep). (E-H) Behavioral analysis of lines in three gene

categories captured in the pigmentation screen, including locomotion (E), sleep latency (F),

sleep bout duration (G), and total sleep (H). Individual t-tests were performed to assess if genes

in a category were significantly different to all other genes tested, and only those with a $p < 0.10$

are reported, with *=$p < 0.05$.

Figure 4. Eleven genes alter head dopamine upon knockdown. (A) Venn diagram of the

categories used to prioritize 39 genes (in yellow). (B) Representative chromatograms for

dopamine (DA) and serotonin (5-HT) upon knockdown or overexpression of TH in Dopaminergic

cells (*TH-GAL4*). (C) Quantification of DA and 5-HT from chromatograms. (D-E) HPLC analysis

on prioritized genes for UAS-RNAi lines from NIG (D) and TRiP (E). (F-G) Pie charts for all

genes for cuticle color (F) and trend in dopamine (G). (H) XY plot comparing pigmentation

phenotype to dopamine levels. For (C) Brown-Forsythe ANOVA test performed with Dunnett's

T3 multiple comparisons test. For (D) and (E) ordinary One-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's

multiple comparisons test. **=$p < 0.01$, ***=$p < 0.001$, ****=$p < 0.0001$. Error bars represent SD.

Figure 5. Brain dopamine analysis identifies *mask* and *clu* as novel regulators of

dopamine levels in the fly brain (A) *mask^{T2A}>mCh::nls* (represented as green) expression

pattern in the adult brain colabelled with a TH antibody staining DANs (magenta), with specific

clusters shown (B-D, B'-D'). (E) *clu::GFP* expression pattern in the adult brain colabelled with

TH (magenta), with specific clusters shown (F-H, F'-H'). (I) Total dopamine in the adult fly brain

upon knockdown of *mask* and *clu*. (J) qRT-PCR of TH upon *mask* knockdown with the

recombined DAN (*TH, R58-GAL4*) driver. (K) Quantification of total TH protein level through

immunofluorescence in DAN clusters upon knockdown of *mask*. (L) Quantification of TH positive

(TH+) neurons in DAN clusters upon knockdown of *mask*. Ordinary one-way ANOVA was done

with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (I-L). Error bars represent SD. Scale bars are 50 μm in

(A) and (E) and 10 μm in all others. Closed arrowheads represent some cells with coexpression

between $mask^{T2A}$>$mCh::nls$ and TH. Open arrowheads represent cells with TH staining and no

$mask^{T2A}$>$mCh::nls$ expression.

Figure 6. $mask$ knockdown reduces TH mRNA and protein and causes sleep phenotypes

that align with reduction in TH levels (A) 24-hr sleep graph (sleep binned in 30-minute

intervals) upon mask knockdown using the TH-GAL4. (B) Quantification of total sleep

throughout the 12-hr dark period upon mask knockdown (B') Quantification of light anticipation

upon mask knockdown. (C) Light anticipation in mask knockdown flies with L-DOPA feeding. (D-

E) Caffeine effects on sleep upon mask knockdown – (D) Total Sleep and (E) Sleep during the

12-hr dark period. For samples with more than one experimental, ordinary one-way ANOVAs

were performed with Dunnett's multiple comparisons. (B, B', C). For samples with one

experimental, individual t-tests were performed (D,E). *=$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ****$p < 0.0001$. Error

bars represent SD.

Tables

501   **Table 1. Fly pigmentation genes identified from this screen with neurological disease**

502   **associated homologs in human.**

Fly Gene	Human Homologs with Neurological Phenotypes (DIOPT Score, Max=18)	Notable Neurological Phenotypes
AP-1sigma	AP1S2 (12), AP1S1 (11), AP2S1 (3)	ataxia, DD, seizures
ATP7	ATP7A (13), ATP7B (13)	dystonia, neurodegeneration, seizures, tremor
Atu	LEO1 (10)	ASD
byn	TBXT (11), TBX19 (10)	neural tube defects, seizures
CG16758	PNP (14)	ataxia, behavioral problems, spastic diplegia, tremor
CG4328	LMX1B (10)	spina bifida
CG43689	MYT1L (7)	DD, ID

CG4679	PTCD3 (14)	cerebral atrophy, myoclonus, psychomotor delay
CG5902	AAMERCR1 (13)	cerebral atrophy, early motor delay, myoclonus
CG8728	PMPCA (15)	ataxia
ClC-c	CLCN3 (12), CLCN4 (11), CLCNKA (3)	ID, language delay, seizures, structural abnormalities
ctrip	TRIP12 (10)	delayed speech, ID, psychomotor delay
Cyp301a1	CYP24A1 (5), CYP27B1 (4), CYP27A1 (4)	ataxia, motor delay, psychiatric symptoms, seizures
CysRS-m	CARS2 (15)	cerebral atrophy, epilepsy, psychomotor delay
Ddc	DDC (14), HDC (4)	dystonia, psychomotor delay, sleep disturbance
Dgp-1	GTPBP2 (3)	ataxia, dystonia, ID, psychomotor delay, seizures
Dscam2	DSCAM (10)	ASD
Egfr	ERBB4 (10), ERBB2 (10), ERBB3 (9)	ALS, axonal neuropathy, DD, seizures
Gbeta13F	GNB1 (15), GNB4 (13), GNB2 (12), GNB5 (3)	ADHD, CMT, DD, ID, language delay
gig	TSC2 (13)	brain structural abnormalities, seizures
Hrb98DE	HNRNPA2B1 (12), HNRNPA1 (9)	ALS, dementia, motor neuropathy
Itpr	ITPR1 (14), ITPR3 (11)	ataxia, cerebellar atrophy, motor delay
Khc	KIF5C (12), KIF5A (12)	ALS, psychomotor delay, seizures, spastic paraplegia
Larp7	LARP7 (10)	anxiety, DD, ID, unstable gait
LeuRS-m	LARS2 (15)	cognitive impairment, DD, dystonia, tremor, seizures
mask	ANKRD17 (10)	DD, ID, motor delay, speech delay
mbt	PAK1 (3), PAK3 (3), PAK2 (3)	ID, macrocephaly, seizures, speech delay
Membrin	GOSR2 (13)	cerebral atrophy, DD, seizures
Mp	COL18A1 (6)	ataxia, seizures

Mpcp2	SLC25A3 (14)	motor delay
ND-13B	NDUFA5 (13)	ASD
ND-42	NDUFA10 (14)	DD, strutural abnormalities
Npc2b	NPC2 (7)	behavioral problems, DD, dementia, dystonia, seizures
per	PER3 (8), PER2 (7)	sleep abnormalities
PIG-A	PIGA (15)	seizures, structural abnormalities
ple	TH (15)	ataxia, dystonia, Parkinsonism, motor and sleep delay
Prosap	SHANK2 (10), SHANK3 (8)	ASD, DD, schizophrenia, seizures
Raf	BRAF (14), RAF1 (11)	DD, seizures
Rbp9	ELAVL2 (12), ELAVL3 (10)	ASD
rdx	SPOP (10)	DD, ID, speech delay
robo1	ROBO3 (8)	structural abnormalities
SCOT	OXCT1 (15)	coma, psychomotor delay
sesB	SLC25A4 (12)	motor delay, hyperreflexia
slp1	FOXG1 (6), FOXI1 (3), FOXJ1 (3), FOXC1 (3)	dystonia, motor delay, sleep and structural abnormalities
Smurf	ITCH (4), NEDD4L (3)	ID, psychomotor delay, seizures
Sod3	SOD1 (4)	ALS, spastic tetraplegia
Sos	SOS1 (14), SOS2 (12)	cognitive impair, learning disabilities
Spn38F	SERPINC1 (4), SERPINI1 (4)	cerebral atrophy, dementia, seizures
stv	BAG3 (9)	abnormal gait, behavioral problems, neuropathy
tws	PPP2R2A (13)	ataxia
Usp2	USP8 (4)	behavioral problems

Usp7	USP7 (13)	ID, psychomotor delay, seizures, structural abnormalities

Table 1. Homologs were defined as a Drosophila Integrative Orthology Prediction Tool (DIOPT,

version 8.0) score greater than or equal to three. Neurological disease associations were based

on Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM)_clincal disease phenotypes and high-confident

ASD genes listed in Simons Foundation Autism Research Initiative (SFARI) gene database (class

S, 1, 2 or 3). ASD=Autism Spectrum Disorder, DD=Developmental Delay, ID=Intellectual

Disability, ALS=Amytrophic Lateral Sclerosis, CMT=Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease.

510 STAR★Methods

511 Experimental Model and Study Participant Details

512 Fly Maintenance and Stocks

Flies (*Drosophila melanogaster*) were reared at 25°C on a 12:12 Light/Dark (LD) and fed a

molasses-based food source unless otherwise specific. Different temperatures were used to

achieve different levels of gene knockdown or overexpression, which is documented for each

experiment. Flies were transferred to a new vial 0-2 days post-eclosion (dpe) for age-appropriate

analysis. Experiments were run on 3-7 dpe flies unless otherwise stated. Mutant and transgenic

trains were obtained from Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center (BDSC,

https://bdsc.indiana.edu/), Vienna Drosophila Research Center (VDRC,

https://www.viennabiocenter.org/vbcf/vienna-drosophila-resource-center/), the Japanese

National Institute of Genetics (https://shigen.nig.ac.jp/fly/nigfly/), or were gifts from scientists in

the field or generated in house (S1 Table – S5 Table).

523 Fly Crosses

For the cuticle screen, *pnr-GAL4*[86] was crossed to the specified UAS-RNAi line (see S1 Table) at

29°C, 25°C, and/or 18°C and examined after pigmentation is completed (>1 dpe). For the

behavior and HPLC analysis *TH-GAL4* females (also called *ple-GAL4*, BDSC stock #8848) were

crossed to the specified RNAi line (see S2 Table). For all HPLC analysis, the controls were

specific to the tested UAS-RNAi line.[87] Thus, the TRiP collection of RNAi lines are compared to

the *UAS-mCherry(mCh) RNAi* line (BDSC #35785) and the NIG collection of RNAi lines as well

as the VDRC RNAi lines are compared to the *UAS-lacZ RNAi* line. For the HPLC analysis

performed on brains, we recombined the *TH-GAL4* with another DAN driver *GMR58E02-GAL4*

(BDSC #41347), which expresses in a large group DANs in the PAM cluster.[27] These flies are

referred to as *TH,R58-GAL4* throughout the article. The *TH,R58-GAL4* line was also used for

qPCR and TH protein analysis via immunohistochemistry. For gene expression analysis *UAS-*

mCh::nls (BDSC #38424) females were collected and crossed with respective T2A-GAL4 lines

(see S5 Table). Female and males were both imaged at ~5-7dpe. For the follow-up sleep studies,

the *UAS-RNAi* males were crossed with *TH-GAL4* virgins for the experimental. For the controls

w[1118] females were crossed to males from either the *TH-GAL4* and *UAS-RNAi* lines

independently.

Method Details

Notum Dissection and Imaging

For thorax analysis and dissection, males and females were both selected, though differences

were not generally observed, and females are shown here. Flies that were 3-5 dpe were collected

and placed in 70% EtOH. Notum dissection and imaging was previously published.[88] In summary,

the thorax was dissected by removing the legs, abdomen, and head. Then the thorax was cut

such that a hole was on the ventral side to allow solution to pass into the thorax. These dissected

thoraces were placed in 10% KOH for 10 minutes at 90°C on a heat block. Then, the KOH was

removed and replaced with 70% EtOH solution. They were mounted on a slide prepared with tape

on two sides in mounting media (50% glycerol, 50% EtOH). The thoraces were imaged on a

stereo microscope (Leica MZ16) using OPTRONICS® MicroFIRE camera. The images are z-

stack brightfield images taken and collapsed using extended depth of field in Image-Pro Plus 7.0

and In-Focus (Version 1.6).

Brain Expression Analysis

Brain dissections and imaging were performed as previously reported.[89] In summary, the brains

were dissected at 3-7 dpe in ice cold PBS and then fixed in 4% PFA in 0.5% PBST for 20 minutes.

Then, they were washed with a quick wash in 0.5% PBST followed by three 10-20-minute washes

in 0.5% PBST while on a rotator. The samples were placed in primary antibody solution [anti-

Tyrosine Hydroxylase 1:500, PelFreez Biologicals, rabbit, P40101; anti-elav 1:100,

Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, rat, 7E8A10 in solution (5% Normal Donkey Serum,

0.1% NaN_3 in 0.5% PBST)] at 4°C for 3 days. Then, the samples were washed with a quick wash

in 0.5% PBST followed by three 10-20-minute washes in 0.5% PBST while on a rotator. After the

last wash, the samples were placed in a secondary antibody solution [anti-Rabbit 1:200 (Thermo

Fisher Sci., Alexa-647, A-21208); anti-rat 1:200 (Thermo Fisher Sci., Alexa-488, A-27040) in

solution (5% Normal Donkey Serum, 0.1% NaN_3 in 0.5% PBST)] for two hours at room

temperature. The samples were washed again with one quick wash followed by three 10-20

minutes washes in 0.5% PBST on a rotator. Then, the brains were mounted in Vectashield

mounting media and imaged on a confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM 710 or Zeiss LSM 880). All

images shown in this manuscript are Z-projection images that were generated using the ZEN

software (Zeiss). Quantification of co-expression with DANs and the T2A-GAL4 lines was done

by counting how many individual TH+ neurons for each cluster had a cell body labeled by the

T2A-GAL4>mCherry::nls signal. This quantification was done per hemisphere. The single cell

sequencing expression analysis was done based on the DAN cluster from adult fruit fly data found

in the Fly Cell Atlas, specifically using the data from Davie, Jannssens and Koldere et al., 2018.[91]

RNAi-based Pigmentation Screen

We identified pigmentation gene hits from a primary screen performed in Jurgen Knoblich's lab

using the Vienna Drosophila Resource Center collection of RNAi lines by accessing their public

RNAi screen database (https://bristlescreen.imba.oeaw.ac.at/start.php). The original screen was

performed on 20,262 RNAi lines, encompassing 11,619 genes (~82% of protein-coding genes).[22]

We selected genes that showed a cuticle pigmentation score for any RNAi line tested (gene

scores ranged from two to ten). To validate pigmentation defects, we selected genes that had

RNAi lines within the Fly National Institute of Genetics (NIG, 220 genes, 426 RNAi lines) or the

Harvard Transgenic RNAi Project (TRiP, 221 genes, 292 RNAi lines) collections. Each RNAi line

was tested at 29°C and 25°C. If there was no phenotype no further testing was performed. If it

was lethal, we tested it at 18°C.

Classification of Cuticle Phenotypes

Phenotypes were scored using a qualitative scoring system. This system used *UAS-TH RNAi* and

UAS-ebony RNAi, as a baseline for "strong". Then, lines were placed along the spectrum as mild,

moderate, or strong. Phenotypes were scored by two independent observers and differences

were settled by a third independent observer. If there was variability with one line or if there was

variability amongst lines, this might appear as mild-moderate, moderate-strong, or mild-strong. In

these cases, the strongest phenotype observed was documented as the recorded phenotype for

a given gene.

Protein-protein interaction network and gene ontology analysis

The protein-protein interaction network was generated using STRING (search tool for recurring

instances of neighboring genes, https://string-db.org/). For our data set we included these sources

of interactions: gene neighborhoods (genes that are found close together across species),[90]

curated databases (publicly available databases of protein interactions), and experimental

evidence (known complexes and pathways from curated sources).[92,93] Any genes that did not

interact with other genes from our screen were not included in the interaction network. This

database was last accessed on 05/05/2023. The lines between genes represents the confidence

in the interactions.

The gene ontology analysis was generated using GOrilla (Gene Ontology enRIchment anaLysis

and visuaLizAtion tool, https://cbl-gorilla.cs.technion.ac.il/). The 153 pigmentation genes hits were

included as target genes, and the background genes were the entire VDRC RNAi collection

included in the Mummery-Widmer et al. 2009 screen. Only the GO terms with a p-value greater

than 0.001 and a fold enrichment of greater than three were included in the analysis. Redundant

terms were removed using Revigo (http://revigo.irb.hr/) with a stringency of 0.7. Those that have

a fold enrichment greater than five were included in S1 Figure.

Human Neurological Disease Gene Classification

Homologs for each fly gene were identified using DIOPT (DRSC Integrative Ortholog Prediction

Tool, v8.0, https://www.flyrnai.org/diopt).[94] Genes were classified as orthologs if they had a

DIOPT score≥3. The human genes were scored as neurological disease-causing genes if they

had an OMIM (Online Mendelian Inheritance of Man, last accessed 01/01/2023,

https://www.omim.org/) disease association with any documented neurological phenotype.[95]

Genes were also classified as human neurological disease genes if they were in the Simons

Simplex Collection of Autism Spectrum Disorder gene list (last accessed 06/01/2022,

https://gene.sfari.org/) and had a score equal to or less than 3 (1, 2, or 3) and/or syndromic (S).[96]

Behavior Analysis using the Drosophila Activity Monitor

Behavior screen

For the behavior screen, the crosses were set in a 12:12 LD chamber at 25°C and transferred every 2-3 days to increase the number of progenies. Upon eclosion, flies were transferred to 29°C and kept for 2-3 more days before testing. Individual tubes (PPT5x65 Polycarbonate, Trikinetics Inc, USA) appropriate for use with the *Drosophila* Activity Monitor (DAM, Model DAM2 for 5mm tubes, TriKinetics Inc, USA) were loaded with approximately ½" worth of molasses-based food. The end of the tube with food was sealed by placing the vial into Paraplast® (Sigma-Aldrich) wax three times and allowing it to dry. Once they were dry, individual male flies were placed into each vial, the vial was placed into the DAM recording chamber, and it was sealed using a 5mm tube cap (CAP5, TriKinetics Inc, USA) with a hole stuffed with cotton. For each genotype, 16 individual males were run, except in a few cases where we were unable to get that many flies. In which case, as many living males as possible were run. The flies were loaded into a 12:12 LD chamber at 29°C and monitored for 3 days. Then, the flies were removed and dead flies were eliminated from analysis.

Locomotion and sleep analysis was run on a 24-hour period, which started at the first onset of light after the flies were placed in the chamber (i.e. 18-24 hours after being placed in the chamber). Locomotion was calculated based on the number of beam crossings over the full 24 hours, the 12 hours of light, and the 12 hours of dark. Sleep was classified as 5 minutes without any beam crossings. Total Sleep was quantified as total time spent sleeping over the 12 hours of light and the 12 hours of dark. Sleep latency was quantified as the amount of time after light onset or dark onset before a 5-minute period of sleep. Sleep Bout Length was quantified as the average length of sleep bouts (>5-minute period of sleep) during the 12 hours of light and 12 hours of dark.

"Outliers" were classified as lines that were more than two standard deviations from the mean of

all lines for any of the phenotypes scored (24-hour locomotion, 12-hour light locomotion, 12-hour

dark locomotion, 12-hour light total sleep, 12-hour dark total sleep, 12-hour light sleep bout length,

12-hour dark sleep bout length, sleep latency during the light, or sleep latency during the dark).

Mask sleep study

For these studies, similar tools and settings were used with these exceptions. Upon eclosion flies

were transferred and kept at 25°C in group housing. For the behavior without drugs, individual

males were placed in tubes with sucrose food (2% agar + 5% sucrose) at 3-6 dpe and behavioral

analysis was collected and analyzed for the following five days. Sleep was then averaged across

the five days for each individual fly before statistical analysis was performed. For the behavior

with drugs, similar conditions were followed, except data was collected on the 2-6 days after they

were loaded into behavior tubes to allow the drug to take effect. The following drug doses were

used for their respective experiments (L-DOPA: 3mg/mL L-DOPA + 12.5 µg/mL carbidopa,

caffeine: 0.5 mg/mL caffeine, NACA: 40 µg/mL N-acetylcysteine amide antioxidant). Drugs were

dissolved directly into the sucrose food except for carbidopa which was dissolve in H_2O at 1:50x

concentration and then added into the sucrose food.

High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analysis

HPLC System

The HPLC used is an Antec® Scientific product with a LC110S pump, SYSTEC OEM MINI

Vacuum Degasser, AS110 autosampler, a SenCell flow cell with salt bridge reference electrode

in the Decade Lite. Data was collected and processed using DataApex Clarity™ chromatography

software. The column used is chosen to work well for neurotransmitters (Acquity UPLC BEH C18

Column, 130Å, 1.7 µm, 1 mm X 100 mm with Acquity In-Line 0.2 µm Filter). The mobile phase

was a 6% Acetonitrile mobile phase optimized for our samples (74.4 mg $NA_2EDTA \cdot 2H_20$, 13.72

mL 85% w/v phosphoric acid, 42.04 g citric acid, 1.2 g OSA, 120 mL acetonitrile, H_20 up to 2L,

pH=6.0 using 50% NaOH solution). The mobile phase was degassed for 10 minutes using the

Bransonic® Ultrasonic Bath before being loaded into the HPLC machine.

The standards for HPLC were made by generating master stocks of 100 mM dopamine and 10

mM serotonin diluted in MilliQ H_2O, which were kept at 4°C. The day of HPLC analysis, the master

stocks were diluted to produce standards ranging from 5-100 nM for 5-HT and 5-1000 nM for

dopamine. Sample concentrations of dopamine (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat#H8502) and serotonin

(Sigma-Aldrich, Cat#H7752) were calculated based on standards run in the same batch.

Standards were compared to standards run on other days to assess for overall performance.

Sample Preparation

For the HPLC on fly heads and brain, we adapted and modified the protocol previously

published.[97,98] Crosses were reared at 29°C and flies were transferred into new tubes 0-2 days

post eclosion (dpe). They remained at 29°C until they were 3-5 dpe. Female heads were collected

by anesthetizing flies with CO_2 and cutting their heads off with a razor blade. Samples were

collected between ZT04-ZT08. The heads were placed into 60 µL of 50 mM citrate acetate

(pH=4.5) and either used for analysis that day or frozen at -20°C. Five heads were used per

sample, and ~10 samples were run per genotype. The day of HPLC analysis, the samples were

thawed and grounded using a pestle for 30 seconds (Cordless Pestle Motor and Fisherbrand™

Disposable Pellet Pestle for 1.5mL tube). Then the samples were spun down at 13,000 rpm for

10 minutes. The supernatant was removed and placed into a new vial. 10 µL from each sample

was used for the Bradford Protein Analysis Assay. The rest of the sample solution (~40-50 µL)

was loaded into a vial (300 µL Polypropylene Sample Vials with 8mm Snap Caps) for HPLC

analysis.

For HPLC analysis on fly brains, flies were collected 3-7 dpe. Then, 10 fly brains (5 male, 5

female) were dissected in ice cold PBS. Right after dissection, the brains were transferred to 60uL

of ice cold 50mM citrate acetate (pH=4.5). Samples were frozen at -20°C and ran within 4 weeks

of collection. The day of HPLC analysis, the samples were homogenized similarly to the fly heads,

though for the Protein Assay, 20 µL of sample was used. Then, the remaining solution was loaded

for HPLC analysis.

Bradford Protein Analysis Assay

The Bio-Rad Bradford Assay was used for colorimetric scoring of total protein. See product details

for full description (Bio-Rad Protein Assay Kit I #5000001). Briefly, the dye reagent was diluted

1:4 in MilliQ H_2O. Then, the solution was filtered through a 0.22 µm SFCA Nalgene filter. 10 µL

of each protein sample (standard or fly sample) was placed into single wells of a 96-well plate.

Then, 200 µL of diluted 1:4 dye reagent was added to each well. The samples rested for 30-45

minutes and then absorbance was measured using BMG Labtech FLUOstar OPTIMA microplate

reader. Protein measurements for each sample were calculated based on standards ran on the

same plate.

RNA expression analysis

Flies were raised at 29°C until 5-7 dpe, then heads were collected by cutting them off with a razor.

Twenty heads were collected per sample with a mixture of males and females and placed directly

on dry ice. Samples were kept on dry ice or at -80°C until RNA isolation. For RNA isolation

samples were homogenized in 200µL of TRIzol®. Then 800µL of TRIzol® was added and the

samples were mixed by pipetting. The samples incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature and

were then spun down at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was removed and

200µL of chloroform was added. The samples were mixed by shaking and then incubated at room

temperature for 3 minutes. Then, they were spun at 10,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C, and the

aqueous layer was collected and placed in a new tube. 500µL of isopropanol was added and the

samples were left to incubate for 10 minutes at room temperature. The samples were spun at

10,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C and the supernatant was removed. The pellet was washed with

1mL of 75% EtOH and centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 5 minutes. All EtOH was removed and the

pellet dried at room temperature for 10 minutes. Then, the pellet was dissolved in 100µL of H_2O.

RNA content and quality was measured using DeNovix DS-11 Fx spectrophotometer/fluorometer.

cDNA reverse transcription was performed according to the iScript™ reverse transcriptase Bio-

Rad kit and 2 µL of RNA sample was added in a 10 µL reaction for both the reverse and no

reverse transcriptase reaction. Samples were measured for content and quality and then they

were diluted to 100ng/µL. qPCR was performed using Bio-Rad iQ SYBR Green Supermix and

measured on Bio-Rad CFX96™ Real-Time System. The TH primers used Forward: 5'-

ATGTTCGCCATCAAGAAATCCT-3' and Reverse: 5'-GGGTCTCGAAACGGGCATC-3', and the

control primers were for Rpl32 were Forward: 5'-ATGCTAAGCTGTCGCACAAATG-3' and

Reverse: 5'-GTTCGATCCGTAACCGATGT-3'. For each sample, two technical replicates were

run for the reverse transcriptase reaction, and the final quantity was based on the average of the

two. If the no reverse transcriptase reaction produced a product that was a Cq within ten, the

sample was discarded.

DAN and TH Quantification

Samples were stained and imaged like the brain expression analysis, except the primarily

antibody solution included an Elav antibody [anti-Tyrosine Hydroxylase 1:500, PelFreez

Biologicals, rabbit, P40101; anti-Elav 1:100, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, rat,

7E8A10 in solution (5% Normal Donkey Serum, 0.1% NaN_3 in 0.5% PBST)]. Confocal imaging

was performed as described above. Once the samples were imaged, anterior, posterior, and

whole brain projections were generated that included all fluorescent signals from the anterior (PAL

and PAM clusters) and posterior (PPL1, PPM2, PPM3, PPL2ab) neuron clusters of interest. The

number of neurons per cluster (excluding the PAM cluster) were counted for each sample. PPM2

and PPM3 clusters were counted together. For TH protein quantification samples were assessed

using ImageJ. A boundary was drawn around each individual cluster and quantified. Then, the

local background for that cluster was subtracted from the cluster to give the fluorescence for the

given sample. Each hemisphere was treated as a separate sample.

742   Quantification and Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using Graphpad Prism 10. Unless otherwise stated, all data

was subjected to a ROUT outlier test, where all outliers were removed, and then a one-way

ANOVA was performed. Each of the experimental samples were compared to the control for the

given samples. In the cases where there were only two samples (i.e. control and experimental),

a t-test was performed.

For the HPLC screen on heads, the samples were normalized to the controls run on that day. The

TRiP collection was normalized to *UAS-mCh RNAi* control and the NIG collection was normalized

to the *UAS-lacZ RNAi* control.

751   Supplemental Information

752   Document S1. Figures S1-S11

753   **Table S1. Screen results by RNAi line: Pigmentation, Drosophila Activity Monitor, HPLC,**

754   **and Prioritization, related to Figures 2 - 4.**

755   **Table S2. Experimental models: Organisms/strains, related to Key resources table**

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1089

1090

Pathway

Tyrosine $\xrightarrow{\text{TH}}$ L-DOPA $\xrightarrow{\text{Ddc}}$ Dopamine $\longrightarrow$ Melanin

Dopamine Screen

VDRC RNAi Cuticle Screen

$\downarrow$ **458 hits**

Pigmentation Screen

Chmp1	Rbp9
sesB	Usp7
rk	ATP7

Behavior Effect

Sleep

153 hits $\longrightarrow$

Disease Association

Conserved

Other / Neuro / No Disease

$\downarrow$ **35 priority hits**

HPLC

TH cDNA
Control
TH RNAi
DA

Dopamine Δ in head

$\downarrow$ **11 hits**

Dopamine Δ in brain

clu   *mask*

Normal mask levels

nucleus   mask

TH mRNA

TH

Dopamine

Reduced mask levels

nucleus   mask

TH mRNA

TH

Dopamine

A

Tyrosine

aspartate

black

β-alanine

pale
(Tyrosine hydroxylase)

Levodopa

Ddc
(Dopa decarboxylase)

Dopamine

N-β-alanyldopamine

ebony / *tan*

speck

N-acetyldopamine

straw

straw

yellow-f

straw

yellow

Sclerotin

Melanin

Sclerotin

B *pnr>lacZ RNAi*

C *pnr>TH RNAi*

D *pnr>Ddc RNAi*

E Heads

Dopamine (pg/total protein)

*** *

mCh   *TH*   *Ddc*
TH-GAL4 X UAS-RNAi

E' Brains

Dopamine (pg/brain)

ns

*

mCh   *TH*   *Ddc*
TH,R58-GAL4 X UAS-RNAi

F Canton-S   **G** *black¹*   **H** *ebony¹*   **I** *speck^lo*   **J** *straw¹*   **K** *tan¹*   **L** *yellow¹*

10mm

F' 25mm   **G'**   **H'**   **I'**   **J'**   **K'**   **L'**

M Canton-S   αTH   **N** *black^{T2A}>mCh::nls*

Q

Head Dopamine (pg/total protein)

****   ****   ****

**   ns

Canton-S *black¹* *ebony¹* *speck^lo* *straw¹* *tan¹* *yellow¹*

O *speck^{T2A}>mCh::nls*   **P** *tan^{T2A}>mCh::nls*

50μm   50μm

R

Brain Dopamine (pg/brain)

ns

Canton-S *black¹* *ebony¹* *speck^lo* *straw¹* *tan¹* *yellow¹*

A αTH mask^T2A>mCh::nls

B PAL **C** PPL1 **D** PPM2

B' PAL **C'** PPL1 **D'** PPM2

E αTH clu::GFP

F PAL **G** PPL1 **H** PPL2ab

F' PAL **G'** PPL1 **H'** PPL2ab

I Brain Dopamine Levels

mask   clu

Dopamine (pg/brain)

TH,R58-GAL4 **X** *UAS-RNAi*

J TH RNA Analysis

TH RNA Fold Change

p=0.113

**

lacZ   mask^6313R-2   mask^KK100529

TH,R58-GAL4 **X** *UAS-RNAi*

K TH Protein Analysis
(by DAN cluster)

PPM2/3   PAL

ΔF   ΔF

****   p=0.08
**   **

lacZ   mask^6313R-2   mask^KK100529

TH,R58-GAL4 **X** *UAS-RNAi*

L Cell Number
(by DAN cluster)

PPM2/3   PAL

TH+ neurons/hemisphere

ns   ns

lacZ   mask^6313R-2   mask^KK100529

TH,R58-GAL4 **X** *UAS-RNAi*