Inflammation increases the penetrance of behavioral impairment in *Shank3*

haploinsufficiency mice – can it explain the behavioral regression in Autism?

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Abstract

Behavioral regression occurs in ~40% of *SHANK3*-associated autism spectrum disorder (ASD). We previously reported that significant behavioral regression in a small cohort with *SHANK3* haploinsufficiency patients, triggered by subclinical infections, responded to immunomodulator treatments. We hypothesize that behavioral regression results from the interplay between *SHANK3* deficiency and neuroinflammation. Using *Shank3* exon 4-22 deletion heterozygous mutant ($Sh3^{+/-}$) mouse, which shows no significant behavior impairments, we established a preclinical model – *Shank3* haploinsufficiency mouse undergoing systemic inflammation challenge via intraperitoneal injection of lipopolysaccharides (LPS). We found that, two weeks after LPS challenge, wild-type mice (WT) recovered but $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice exhibited motor impairment, anxiety-like behaviors, and excessive grooming, similar to *Shank3* exon 4-22 deletion homozygous mutants. Anti-inflammatory treatment partially reversed LPS-induced behavioral changes. Transcriptomic analysis revealed upregulation of neuroinflammation-related genes and downregulation of synaptic function-related genes in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice in response to LPS. Especially, pro-inflammatory genes and microglia markers were overly activated that may result from the increased Toll-Like Receptor 4 (TLR4) expression in microglia in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice. Our findings indicate that neuroinflammation increases the penetrance of behavioral impairment in *Shank3* haploinsufficiency mice and support a potential mechanism for the behavioral regression in human *SHANK3* disorders for future investigations.

Introduction

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a group of neurodevelopmental conditions with typical onset before the age of three [1]. A significant proportion of children with ASD shows developmental arrest at an early developmental age and behavioral regression throughout the lifespan. Behavioral regression is characterized by loss of previously acquired skills, including loss of purposeful hand use, loss of acquired speech, and gait abnormalities [2-4]. Catatonic features are frequently associated with behavioral regression observed in ASD [5,6]. However, the underlying mechanism for the early developmental arrest and behavioral regression remains poorly understood.

The *SHANK3* mutation is one of the most common monogenic defects associated with ASD in humans [7-10]. Genetic mutations in *SHANK3* gene can manifest as Phelan-McDermid Syndrome (PMS), characterized by a chromosomal deletion of 22q13.3 or single nucleotide variants, indels, exonic deletions within the *SHANK3* gene in individuals with primary ASD [11]. Patients with *SHANK3* haploinsufficiency also exhibit severe intellectual disability, motor deficits, and speech delays [12-14]. Developmental regression with catatonic features has been reported in ~40% of cases with *SHANK3* haploinsufficiency [15-20]. We previously described four patients with pathogenic *SHANK3* mutations who experienced acute and severe behavioral regression following possible subclinical viral infections [21]. Notably, treatment with intravenous immunoglobulins (IVIG) combined with anti-inflammatory drugs and immunomodulators significantly reversed the behavioral regression in these cases [21]. This clinical report strongly suggests a potential link between inflammation and behavioral regression associated with *SHANK3*

haploinsufficiency. However, the direct causality could not be investigated and determined

from human studies.

SHANK3 protein is primarily characterized as a scaffold protein located at the

postsynaptic density of neurons, interacting with other synaptic proteins and affecting

synaptic function [22]. However, the role of SHANK3 in non-neuronal cells such as microglia

has been poorly studied [23-26]. Microglia activation is an important part of the innate

immune response in the brain and has been reported in ASD patients [27]. Our previous

studies showed that inflammation induces acute behavioral changes [28] and aggravates

hypothermia in *Shank3* mutant mouse model [29]. These initial findings suggest a potential

mechanistic link between *SHANK3* deficiency and inflammatory response.

Our lab previously generated a *Shank3* mutant mouse line with a deletion of exon

4 to 22 (*Shank3$^{\Delta e4-22}$*) that disrupts most of the *Shank3* coding region[30]. *Shank3$^{\Delta e4-22}$*

homozygous but not heterozygous mice showed robust face validity for autism-like

behaviors[30]. Therefore, *Shank3$^{\Delta e4-22}$* heterozygous mice offer a unique opportunity to

examine the interaction between genes and environment, specifically whether

neuroinflammation may modify the penetrance of behavioral phenotypes associated with

SHANK3 deficiency in humans. In this study, we utilized the *Shank3$^{\Delta e4-22}$* heterozygous

mice and investigated the behavioral outcome, transcriptomic profiles, and microglia

activation after systemic inflammatory challenge induced by lipopolysaccharides (LPS).

These findings provide a general insight on the role of neuroinflammation in ASD

susceptibility.

Results

Systemic inflammation via LPS modified the penetrance of motor dysfunction,

anxiety-like behavior, and repetitive behavior in *Shank3*[Δe4-22] heterozygous (*Sh3*^{+/-})

mice.

To explore whether inflammation plays a role in regression of ASD-associated

behaviors, we challenged *Sh3*^{+/-} mice by intraperitoneal injection of LPS (*Sh3*^{+/-}+ LPS).

Control mice were given the same volume of normal saline (PBS) (*Sh3*^{+/-} + PBS). Both

LPS-treated *Sh3*^{+/-} and wild-type (WT) mice experienced weight loss at 24 hours

compared to PBS-treated mice (**Fig. 1A**). This indicated systemic inflammation induced

by LPS, consistent with previous reports [31]. LPS-treated mice regained body weight at 72

hours post-injection, suggesting recovery from the LPS challenge (**Fig. 1A**). Acute

behavioral changes, including decreased locomotor activity [32], social avoidance [33], and

depressive-like behavior [34], have been reported in LPS-treated mice around 24 hours

post-injection. However, interpretating these behavioral changes in the context of ASD

model may be confounded by immediate sickness of test mice [28,35,36]. Therefore, we

performed behavioral analysis two weeks after LPS injection to distinguish "LPS and

SHANK3 haploinsufficiency interaction effect" vs. "acute LPS effect" (**Fig. 1B**). The

Shank3[Δe4-22] homozygous (*Sh3*^{-/-}) group was included for a comparison [30].

To assess the motor coordination, latency to fall from the rotarod was measured in

both steady speed (16 rpm) and accelerated speed (4-40 rpm) conditions. As expected,

Sh3^{-/-} mice showed significantly reduced latency to fall compared to WT+PBS group. No

significant difference was observed between WT+PBS and WT+LPS groups, but *Sh3*^{+/-}

mice treated with LPS showed significantly shorter latency to fall than the PBS group (**Fig.**

1C-D). The duration of mouse spent in center of open field test (OFT) showed no

significant difference between WT+PBS and WT+LPS groups, but $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS spent

significantly less time in the center compared to $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS (**Fig. 1E**). In the light/dark

box test, distance of mouse moved in light chamber showed no significant difference

between WT+PBS and WT+LPS groups while $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS significantly moved less in light

chamber compared to $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS (**Fig. 1F**). Repetitive behavior was assayed through

scoring grooming behavior. $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS showed significantly longer grooming duration

than $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS while WT+PBS and WT+LPS groups were comparable (**Fig. 1G**). We

also conducted a three-chamber social preference test. As expected, $Sh3^{-/-}$ mice showed

no preference for social targets compared to WT. However, both LPS- and PBS-treated

$Sh3^{+/-}$ and WT mice spent significantly more time in the chamber with the social target (S)

or in the proximity region of the social target (SP) (**Fig. 1H-I**).

To explore potential sex effect, we compared motor function and sociability in both

PBS- and LPS-treated female and male $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice. LPS-treated male $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice

exhibited significant reduced latency to fall in rotarod, although no significant difference

found between LPS and PBS group in female $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice (**Supplementary Fig. 1A-B**).

Both LPS- and PBS-treated male $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice spent significantly more time in S or SP, but

no significant difference found in female $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice (**Supplementary Fig. 1C-D**). Taken

together, our results indicated that, LPS treatment in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice significantly impaired the

motor performance on rotarod, changed exploratory or anxiety-like behaviors in OFT and

light/dark box test, and increased grooming duration, but did not affect sociability in three-

chamber test. By comparison, LPS treatment in WT mice did not have any significant

effect on those behaviors. These findings suggest the interplay of inflammation and

Shank3 haploinsufficiency in select domains of behaviors.

To assess whether anti-inflammation treatment can reverse the behavioral

changes induced by LPS in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice, we applied mefenamic acid (MFA), a nonsteroidal

anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID). One of the MFA targets is the intracellular

cyclooxygenase (COX) signaling, which can be activated by LPS [37-39]. Previous study

also reported that MFA has neuroprotective effect [40]. Given that both WT+LPS and *Sh3*^{+/-}

+LPS group exhibited impaired motor function at 1 week after the LPS injection

(**Supplementary Fig. 2A-B**) but such behavior deficits of WT+LPS group recovered to

baseline at 2-week post-injection (**Fig. 1C-D**), we chose day 7 post-injection as the

endpoint of MFA treatment (**Fig. 2A**). We administered MFA via intraperitoneal injection

once a day for seven days following LPS injection and then performed rotarod test 24

hours after the final dose of MFA to evaluate the treatment efficacy (**Fig. 2A**). In the steady

speed (16 rpm) rotarod test, both WT+LPS+MFA and *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS+MFA groups showed

significantly increased latency to fall compared to vehicle-treated groups (**Fig. 2B**),

suggesting that MFA effectively mitigated the motor function deficits induced by LPS.

Sh3^{+/-}+LPS+MFA showed trend of shorter latency to fall than WT+LPS+MFA (**Fig. 2B**, *p*

= 0.091), suggesting potential less pronounced anti-inflammatory efficacy and the

presence of exacerbated inflammatory responses in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice. In contrast, in the

accelerated speed (4-40 rpm) rotarod test, MFA did not restore motor function in either

WT or *Sh3*^{+/-} mice (**Fig. 2C**). Moreover, when comparing MFA treatment in female and

male *Sh3*^{+/-} mice, MFA significantly increased latency to fall in female *Sh3*^{+/-} mice but not

in male *Sh3*^{+/-} mice (**Fig. 2D-E**). Overall, our results showed that LPS-induced motor

function impairment in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice can be partially reversed by anti-inflammatory

treatment. Future studies will include additional behavioral assays, as well as time-course

and dose-dependent responses to MFA treatment.

LPS-induced differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were associated with neuroinflammation and neurotransmission in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice.

To understand how LPS-induced inflammation modifies the penetrance of motor

impairment in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice, we analyzed the transcriptomic profiles in the forebrains by

bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) (**Supplementary Fig. 3A-B, Supplementary Tables 1**

and 2). LPS treatment induced hundreds of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in both

WT and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice compared to PBS-treated groups. The number of upregulated genes

(488 DEGs in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS and 433 DEGs in WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS) was

greater than that of downregulated genes (75 DEGs in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS and

108 DEGs in WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS) (**Fig. 3A-B**). We identified 88 upregulated and 37

downregulated DEGs between *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. WT+LPS (**Fig. 3C**). Although we found 67

upregulated and 33 downregulated genes when comparing transcriptomic profiles

between *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS and WT+PBS (**Fig. 3D**), those genes barely overlapped with any

LPS-induced DEGs observed in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice. Next, we compared the overlapping genes

among four comparisons (**Fig. 3E-F, Supplementary Tables 3 and 4**). A total of 313

shared upregulated and 12 shared downregulated DEGs were identified between

WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS. Those shared DEGs probably

represent the LPS-induced neuroinflammatory responses in mouse brains. Eight

upregulated genes shared among *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. WT+LPS, *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS

and WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS were well-known for their roles in neuroinflammation (**Fig. 3E**

highlighted with white underline, **Table 1**). Interestingly, 10 upregulated genes and 5

downregulated genes were found only in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice not in WT mice in response to LPS

(**Fig. 3E-F** highlighted with green underline, **Table 2-3**), suggesting that LPS-induced

neuroinflammation in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice is mediated by distinct signaling pathways. Additionally,

when we compared the overlapping genes between *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS vs. WT+PBS and *Sh3*^{+/-}

+LPS vs. WT+LPS, only 4 genes in total (two are protein-coding genes) were identified

(**Fig. 3E-F** highlighted with red underline). Particularly, *Acr* is a *Shank3* subordinate

adjacent gene, whose expression increased when *Shank3* is deleted [41]. To further

characterize the function of DEGs from RNA-seq, we performed the pathway analysis

using the QIAGEN Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) [42]. We identified more activated

inflammation-associated pathways in response to LPS challenges in both *Sh3*^{+/-} and WT

(**Supplementary Fig. 4 and 5**). In contrast, inhibited neurotransmission-related pathways

including NMDA receptor and calcium signaling pathways were only observed in LPS-

treated *Sh3*^{+/-} but not in LPS-treated WT (**Supplementary Fig. 4 and 5**). To understand

the distinct molecular pathways in LPS-treated *Sh3*^{+/-} mice, we delved into the pathway

analysis from *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. WT+LPS (**Supplementary Fig. 6**). The top five activated

pathways were all related to inflammatory processes. The top two inhibited pathways,

cardiac conduction and CREB signaling in neurons, represent inhibited neuron signal

transmission and neuronal functions. The other three inhibited pathways, HIF1α signaling,

eNOS signaling and phagosome formation pathways, represent increased neuronal

vulnerability to stress and inflammatory stimuli. In addition to the top five pathways with

highest z score value, we noticed that most of the upregulated signaling pathways in

response to LPS were all inflammation-related, including cytokine storm pathway and

neuroinflammation pathway (**Fig. 3G**). In contrast, the downregulated pathways in LPS-

treated *Sh3*^{+/-} mice were neuronal and synaptic function-related, including potassium

channel pathway, glutamatergic signaling pathway, acetylcholine signaling pathway, and

gap junction signaling pathway (**Fig. 3G**). Overall, our RNA-seq results suggested that a

combination of exacerbated neuroinflammatory responses and impaired neuronal

functions is attributed to the LPS-induced behavioral regression in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice.

Neuroinflammation was increased in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice

To investigate how LPS leads to aggravated neuroinflammation in *Sh3*^{+/-} brains,

we first measured the RNA expression of the pro-inflammatory cytokines *Il1b* and

chemokines *Cxcl10* using RT-qPCR. *Il1b* and *Cxcl10* have been identified as common

upregulated genes across all LPS-treated groups in RNA-seq (**Table 1**). RT-qPCR

confirmed that LPS significantly increased *Il1b* and *Cxcl10* expression in both WT and

Sh3^{+/-} mice compared to PBS groups. Although no significant difference in *Il1b* and *Cxcl10*

expression was found between *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS vs. WT+PBS, *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS showed

significantly increased expression compared to WT+LPS group (**Fig. 4A-B**). A previous

study showed that LPS treatment upregulates microglia marker gene *Cx3cr1* while

downregulates microglia homeostasis gene *P2ry12* expression [43]. Therefore, we

examined the expression of microglia markers *Cx3cr1* and *P2ry12* using RT-qPCR. We

found that, as expected, LPS significantly increased *Cx3cr1* expression and decreased

P2ry12 expression in both WT and *Sh3*^{+/-} mice compared to PBS groups (**Fig. 4C-D**).

However, *Cx3cr1* expression was comparable between *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS and WT+PBS but

significantly increased in *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS compared to WT+LPS group (**Fig. 4C**). In contrast,

P2ry12 expression was significantly higher in *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS than in WT+PBS and higher in

Sh3$^{+/-}$+LPS than in WT+LPS (**Fig. 4D**).

We further examined microglia activation by examining the expression of IBA-1, a

marker widely used for the assessment of microglia activation state [44] (**Fig. 4E-H**).

Compared to PBS treatment, LPS increased IBA-1 staining significantly at 3 hours and

24 hours after LPS treatment in both WT and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice. However, *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS showed

significantly higher microglia activation than WT+LPS group at 24 hours but not at 3 hours

post-injection. These results indicated that the prolonged activation of microglia

contributed to increase of neuroinflammatory responses in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice.

Next, to understand the mechanism underlying the LPS-induced microglia

overactivation, we analyzed the LPS transduction signaling pathways. LPS is known to

bind to Toll-like receptor-4 (TLR-4) [45], so we examined TLR4 expression using western

blot. We found that TLR4 expression was significantly higher in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ than WT with either

PBS or LPS treatment (**Fig. 5A-B**). Additionally, we measured the SHANK3 protein

expression and found that either PBS- or LPS-treated *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ groups showed a reduction

in SHANK3 protein expression compared to WT groups as expected, but no changes in

SHANK3 expression were observed after LPS treatment (**Fig. 5C-D**).

TLR4 is known to associate with LPS-induced microglia activation[46-49]. To

investigate whether observed TLR4 augmentation directly facilitates microglia

overactivation in LPS treated *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice, we performed co-immunostaining of TLR4 and

microglia marker IBA1 and analyzed colocalization between TLR4 and IBA1 (**Fig. 5E-K**).

We found that TLR4 and IBA1 expression were well-colocalized in both LPS-treated WT

and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice (**Fig. 5E-G**). However, colocalization coefficient normalized by TLR4 was

lower in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice than that of WT mice. The colocalization coefficient normalized by

IBA1 was similar between $Sh3^{+/-}$ and WT mice (**Fig. 5H-I**), indicating elevated TLR4

expression in $Sh3^{+/-}$ might involve cell types in addition to microglia. Cellular

immunofluorescence intensity of IBA1 was significantly higher in $Sh3^{+/-}$ IBA1 than that of

WT (two-tailed p = 0.0001) (**Fig. 5K**), similar to prior results (**Fig. 4H**). In contrast, the

immunofluorescence intensity of TLR4 in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice is slightly lower than WT (two-tailed

p = 0.0183) (**Fig. 5J**) and that is different from the results of immunoblot analysis using

fresh mouse brain tissue (**Fig. 5A-B**). Given that TLR4 was expressed in many different

cell types including astrocytes, neutrophils, and brain endothelial cells [50,51], these findings

supported that augmented TLR4 might also be in other cell types in addition to microglia

in $Sh3^{+/-}$ brains.

Finally, to validate whether behavior impairment is associated with synaptic

dysfunction in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice, we analyzed the expression level of postsynaptic density (PSD)

protein HOMER 1b/c and PSD95, which play important roles in synaptic functions[52-54],

using forebrain PSD fraction at two-week post-injection of LPS (**Fig. 5L-N**). Consistent

with our prior report [30], HOMER 1b/c was significantly lower in $Sh3^{+/-}$ than WT but no

significant difference was found when comparing $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS with $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS group (**Fig.**

5M). In contrast, PSD95 was comparable between WT+PBS and $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS groups but

significantly reduced in $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS group compared to WT+LPS group. (**Fig. 5N**). These

results indicate that LPS treatment in SHANK3 haploinsufficiency mice causes a

significant but selective reduction of PSD95 protein that is known to be important for

synaptic functions and may contribute to the worsen behaviors in LPS treated Sh3$^{+/-}$ mice.

Table 1. Eight Upregulated DEGs shared among *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. WT+LPS, *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS and WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS.

Gene name	Protein function
Bcl3	BCL3 is an autonomous determinant of memory/terminal effector cell balance during CD8^{+} T cell differentiation in response to acute viral infection [55].
Ccl3	CCL3 as a cytokine contributes to progressive tissue damage and functional impairment during secondary injury after spinal cord injury [56].
Cxcl10	CXCL10 as a lymphocyte chemoattractant contributes to the intraparenchymal trafficking of lymphocytes during acute CNS inflammation [57].
Gbp5	GBP5 as a GTPase participates in the regulation of immunity and neuroinflammation [58].
Ifitm6	IFITM6 encodes cell surface proteins that modulate cell-cell adhesion and cell differentiation, is induced in various macrophages, and increases expression 24 hours after LPS [59].
Il1b	IL-1β can be acutely induced in the brain following peripheral bacterial infections, and microglia facilitate exaggerated IL-1β production upon exposure to acute systemic inflammation induced by bacterial LPS [60].
Steap4	STEAP4 as a key effector molecule contributes to the pathogenesis of neuroinflammation in experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis [61].
Tlr2	Toll-like receptors (TLRs) are fundamental sensor molecules of the host innate immune system, which detect conserved molecular signatures of a wide range of microbial pathogens and initiate innate immune responses via distinct signaling pathways [62].

Table 2. Ten upregulated DEGs only shared between *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. WT+LPS and *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS, not include in WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS.

Gene name	Protein function
Alms1-ps1	ALMS1, centrosome and basal body associated, pseudogene 1.
Atf3	ATF3 as a transcription factor responds to and exert dual effects on inflammatory responses and in involved in neuroinflammatory response [63].
Ccl12	CCL12 as a chemokine expressed by microglia is involved in inflammation [64].
Fas	Fas/FasL pathway plays a key role in immune homeostasis and leads to excessive neuroinflammation during excessive neuroinflammation [65].
Gm11681	long non-coding RNA.
Hspa1a *Hspa1b* *Hspb1*	HSPA1A and HSPA1B are two subtypes of HSPA1 proteins. HSPA1 is a member of the stress-inducible 70-kDa heat shock protein (HSP70) family, which plays a critical role in the cellular stress response [66,67].
Oas1g	OAS1G is an important murine antiviral response factor, function through activating RNase L to degrade viral RNA in turn inhibiting viral replication and propagation [68].
Prok2	PROK2 is a secreted protein involved in the pathogenesis of several acute and chronic neurological diseases. It shows that PROK2 mediates neuronal cell deaths in traumatic brain injury via ferroptosis [69].

Table 3. Five downregulated DEGs only shared between *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. WT+LPS and *Sh3*^{+/-}+LPS vs. *Sh3*^{+/-}+PBS, not include in WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS.

Gene name	Protein function
4930415F15Rik	SPMIP7 protein is mainly involved in spermatogenesis but is also expressed in the brain and its function is unclear.
AC173482.5	Predicted gene, Gm47797
Gm14393	Predicted gene
Gm5111	Predicted gene
Tgif2	TGIF2 is a transcriptional repressor. Downregulation of TGIF2 is correlated with neuronal apoptosis and development of autism in mice [70].

Discussion

In this study, we successfully established a preclinical model and experimental

protocol to assess the role of neuroinflammation induced by LPS in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice (**Fig. 6**).

We demonstrated that LPS challenge modified the penetrance of motor function deficits,

anxiety-like behavior, and repetitive behavior but did not alter social preference in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$

mice. More interestingly, the motor and emotion specific behavioral changes are

reminiscent of catatonia features that are often observed in humans with *SHANK3*

deficiency and idiopathic ASD [71-73]. Additionally, our extensive comparative transcriptome

analysis among the different groups validated the experimental protocol of LPS induction

and revealed distinct underlying molecular mechanisms. The significantly upregulated

genes ubiquitously associated with inflammatory pathways in LPS treated groups

indicated the effectiveness of LPS induction. The downregulated genes in multiple

pathways associated with neuronal and synaptic functions strongly support a potential

causal link between LPS treatment and increased penetrance of abnormal behaviors in

Sh3$^{+/-}$ mice. Moreover, the changes of the expression of microglia markers and increased

activation of microglia after LPS treatment are consistent with the role of

neuroinflammation in the brain. Finally, the partial reversal of motor impairment in LPS

treated *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice through the anti-inflammation treatment with MFA further supports this

causality. Notably, MFA treatment did not restore LPS-treated WT and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice

performance in the accelerating speed rotarod. These findings suggest that the

mechanisms underlying inflammation-induced motor impairment are different between

steady speed and accelerating speed rotarod tests [74]. Additionally, one-week MFA

treatment was more effective in female *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice than male mice (**Fig. 2D-E**) and LPS-

treated male *Sh3*^{+/-} mice performance was worse than female ones (**Supplementary Fig.**

1A-B), indicating potential sex difference in motor function[75] and neuroinflammation

process[76].

The behavior impairments induced by LPS in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice could attribute to the

dysfunction of neuronal cells resulted from neuroinflammation. In the previous study that

our lab contributed, LPS challenge increased the excitability in D1 but not D2 medium

spiny neurons using whole-cell patch clamp recordings and decreased neuron calcium

transients in Nucleus Accumbens in response to social stimuli using *in vivo* Ca^{2+} imaging[28].

Our data showed that increased neuroinflammation downregulated genes associated

with neuronal and synaptic functions in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice compared to WT mice and reduced

synaptic protein PSD95 in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice.

LPS-induced neuroinflammation could also alter the function of non-neuronal cells

in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice. Our findings of augmented TLR4 expression and microglia activation

associated with LPS treatment suggested that microglia are primarily involved in more

significant neuroinflammatory responses in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice. Consistent with the findings in

many reports in literature supporting that TLR4 mediates microglial activation in brains [46-

49], our findings also support that the upregulation of TLR4 contributes to the observed

microglial activation following LPS administration. The direct causality between

upregulation of TLR4 and microglia activation due to LPS induction has been

demonstrated in a recent study[77]. Our observations are consistent with this finding and

support the augmented TLR4 as the cause of microglia activation in SHANK3 deficiency

mice. Further analysis of TLR4 and IBA1 cellular colocalization indicated that additional

cell types might also be involved in LPS-TLR4 (ligand-receptor) mediated

neuroinflammation. Our previous study showed that SHANK3 deficiency in periphery

nerve system contributes to the exaggerated inflammatory responses[78]. Our recently

published collaborative study has shown that conditional knock-out of SHANK3 major

isoform in brain endothelial cells recapitulated social behavior impairment and other

synaptic phenotypes [79]. Our findings are aligned with previous studies showing that

Shank3 deficiency exacerbates the inflammatory responses in peripheral neurons either

induced by LPS [29,78] or by maternal immune activation during the pregnancy [80]. Overall,

our findings showed that LPS exacerbated neuroinflammation in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mouse brains

through unique molecular mechanisms as summarized in **Fig. 6** for further investigations

in future.

In humans, haploinsufficiency of *SHANK3* is highly penetrant for

neurodevelopmental impairments [81]. Approximately ~70% of PMS and *SHANK3*

deficiency patients met the diagnostic criteria for ASD. The comorbidity of intellectual

disability, anxiety, and epilepsy are highly penetrant or common [72]. There is an increasing

recognition of behavioral regression and catatonia among young teens with *SHANK3*

deficiency [71]. However, the triggers and mechanisms underlying the behavioral

regression are largely unknown. Although few clinical case reports implicated

neuroinflammation as a trigger [21,82], our findings may offer a mechanistic explanation for

the behavioral regressions observed in *SHANK3* patients after experiencing a subclinical

infection responded to the immune modulator treatment. Our study may support a link

between neuroinflammation and autism susceptibility in general.

Our results establish an important proof-of-concept study to dissect the link

between neuroinflammation and autism susceptibility. The apparent limitations of our

studies include that we have not provided definitive causality for the cell types and specific

molecular mechanism directly implicated in the increased neuroinflammatory responses

indued by LPS in SHANK3 haploinsufficiency mice. Future studies are warranted to

examine dosage- or treatment duration-dependent effects of LPS on behavioral outcomes

at different neurodevelopmental stages and in different sexes of *Shank3* deficiency mice.

Despite these limitations, our results suggest that *Shank3* haploinsufficiency increases

susceptibility to neuroinflammation-induced behavior impairment through distinct

molecular pathways. These findings provide new insights into the role of

neuroinflammation in ASD and for developing anti-inflammatory treatments as both

preventive and therapeutic strategies for behavior regression in ASD that are warranted

for further investigations.

Materials and methods

Animals

Animals were housed under standard 12 h/12 h light/dark cycles (7 AM-7 PM) with food, water ad libitum, controlled temperature and humidity in the Yale University animal facility. Experiments procedures conducted were following the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) protocol at Yale University (protocol No. 2025-20271). $Shank3^{\Delta e4-22}$ mouse line (Jax Strain #:039524) was generated in-house and had been crossed with C57BL/6J mouse line (Jax Strain #:000664) over 20 generations. Wild-type (*WT*), $Shank3^{\Delta e4-22}$ homozygous ($Sh3^{-/-}$) and $Shank3^{\Delta e4-22}$ heterozygous mice ($Sh3^{+/-}$) were obtained through heterozygotes breeding as previously described [30]. All experiment procedures were performed within a time frame of 9 AM-5 PM. Animals of the same sex were group housed (2-5 mice per cage). Both male and female mice were used. One cage of mice with same genotype and same sex were assigned to PBS or LPS group randomly. Experimental order of different group was randomized. Mice from multiple groups for same experiments were carried out at same time. Before experiments, each mouse was cataloged with identification number in an excel sheet which included detailed information such as genotype and drug treatment. During experiments, experimenter handled mice based on its identification number and attempted to be semi-blinded. Post-processing, data handling and statistical analysis were semi-automated performed using software stated below. Mice with health problems such as runt, fight wounds, malocclusion, and eye problems, were excluded from experiments. For RNA and protein extraction, mice were deeply anesthetized with 5% isoflurane, then mouse brains were quickly collected, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored in -80 °C freezer until further

use. The number of animals used in each experiment was determined based on our lab

prior experience and a prior power analysis was calculated using G*power statistics

software[83] (**Supplementary table 5**). Total number of mice used for each experiment was

as follows: 86 mice for MFA treatment rotarod test, 52-95 mice for open field, rotarod and

three-chamber behavior test, 49-66 mice for light/dark box and grooming behavior test,

15 mice for RNA sequencing, 40 mice for quantitative PCR, 24 mice for wide-field IBA1

staining, 6 mice for TLR4/IBA1 co-staining, 18 mice for whole-cell protein analysis and 24

mice for synaptic protein analysis. All experiments were replicated at least once, except

that RNA sequencing was done one time.

Drug

Three to five-week-old female and male mice were intraperitoneally injected with

LPS (Sigma, L6511) in saline at 1 mg/kg or same volume of saline (PBS). To test the

mefenamic acid (MFA) anti-inflammatory effect on behavior improvement, MFA

(Thermofisher, AAJ6270522) dissolved in DMSO at 5 mg/kg or the same volume of

DMSO (vehicle) was injected intraperitoneally to the mice with LPS injection once a day

for 7 days. Before injection, freshly made stock solution of MFA in DMSO (MFA treatment)

or DMSO (vehicle treatment) was diluted with 1:100 ratio in PBS to minimize DMSO

toxicity.

Behavior assay

For behavioral experiments, mice were handled for 3 days and habituated in the

procedure room for 1 hour before behavioral assays. All behavioral tests were conducted

once for each mouse.

Anxiety-like behaviors were tested by open field test (OFT) and light/dark box test

followed previous studies[30,84]. In OFT, mouse spontaneous activity in Noldus Open Field

(4 chambers, 40 (L) x 40 (W) x 30 (H) cm per chamber) over 10 minutes was recorded

with EthoVision XT video tracking software (Noldus). The Noldus two-chambered

light/dark box is equipped with the lid of dark chamber made by infrared translucent

material. The dimensions of the compartment are one third for the dark chamber (20 (L)

x 20 (W) x 20 (H) cm) and two thirds for the light chamber (20 (L) x 40 (W) x 20 (H) cm).

Mice were firstly placed into the open-light chamber (~700 lux) and given 5 min to freely

explore both light and dark (0 lux) chambers. The video was recorded with EthoVision XT

video tracking software. Ethovision software was used to automatically score the travel

distance and duration in arena.

Repetitive behavior was tested by evaluating mouse grooming behaviors. Mouse

was placed in a Noldus phenotyper (30 (L) x 30 (W) x 45 (H) cm) and recorded with

EthoVision XT video tracking software. Mouse freely explored for 10 minutes and last 5

minutes of grooming behavior was hand scored.

Motor coordination was tested by rotarod (Med Associate) performance as

described [30,85]. Mice were tested in two 5 min trials with an inter-trial interval of 30 min. In

accelerating session, revolutions per minute (rpm) of the turning barrel is accelerating

from 4 to 40. In steady speed session, the rpm of the turning barrel is fixed at 16. Latency

to fall, or to rotate off the top of the turning barrel, was measured by the timer.

Social preference was tested by a three-chamber assay as described[85]. An

unfamiliar age- and sex-matched mouse was used as a social stimuli mouse in the three-

chamber test and habituated under a wired enclosure for 3 days before testing. A

customized chamber composed of a rectangular Plexiglas arena (42 (L) x 56.5(W) x 35.8

(H) cm) divided into three chambers (each chamber 18.5 x 42 cm), with 2 doors

connecting chambers and two enclosures (wired pencil cups with metal vertical bars)

located in the two outer chambers. Briefly, the test mouse was habituated in the center

chamber for 5 min. Then the social stimuli mouse was placed under one of the pencil

cups and 2 doors were lifted allowing the experimental mouse to freely explore the whole

arena. The location of the empty and mouse enclosures, and the social stimuli mouse

were changed and counterbalanced for each trial. The EthoVision XT video tracking

software was used to score the duration of mouse spending in the empty chamber, the

mouse chamber, proximity regions (5 cm in distance) close to the empty enclosure, and

proximity regions close to the mouse enclosure.

Bulk RNA sequencing

Total RNA was isolated from the forebrain hemisphere using Trizol (Invitrogen,

15596018) followed manufacturer protocol and then treated with DNase I (Invitrogen,

AM1907) to remove contaminating DNA. RNA samples were sent to Yale Center for

Genome Analysis (YCGA) for bulk RNA sequencing (RNA-seq). See details about

sequencing process in Supplementary Information. After obtaining the data, low quality

reads were trimmed, and adaptor contamination were removed using Trim Galore (v0.5.0).

Trimmed reads were mapped to the mouse reference genome (mm10) using HISAT2

(v2.1.0) [86]. Gene expression levels were quantified using StringTie (v1.3.3b) [87].

Differentially expressed genes were identified using DESeq2 (v 1.22.1) [88]. Unpaired *t*-test

p value was used for filtering DEGs with significant differences between the two groups.

Log_2fold cutoff threshold at 1 and $p < 0.05$ was used to filter DEGs from two groups

comparison (WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS, $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS vs. $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS, $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS vs.

WT+LPS and $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS vs. WT+PBS) for genes comparison and analysis. *Pathway*

analysis: QIAGEN Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) library of canonical pathways was

used to identify the pathways most significant to the data set. Molecules from the dataset

meeting the criteria in which $\log_2$fold cutoff threshold at 0.25 and $p < 0.05$ were associated

with a canonical pathway in the QIAGEN Knowledge Base were considered for the

analysis. Because using $\log_2$fold cutoff threshold at 1 only revealed three activated

pathways in $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS vs. WT+LPS comparison which were all inflammation-related, so

we expanded the $\log_2$fold cutoff threshold to 0.25. The significance of the association

between the data set and the canonical pathway was measured based on: 1) a ratio of

the number of molecules from the data set that map to the pathway divided by the total

number of molecules that map to the canonical pathway was displayed, 2) a right-tailed

Fisher's Exact Test was used to calculate a p-value determining the probability that the

association between the genes in the dataset and the canonical pathway was explained

by chance alone, 3) A z-score was calculated to indicate the likelihood of activation

or inhibition of that pathway. In this paper, pathways with right-tailed Fisher's Exact Test

$p < 0.05$, z-score > 0.1 was considered as activated pathways and z-score < -0.1 was

considered as inhibited pathways. The volcano plot was created using VolcaNoseR [89].

Veen diagram was plotted using InteractiVenn [90].

Real-Time Quantitative Reverse Transcription PCR (RT-qPCR)

Total RNA was isolated using same protocol as RNA-seq. RNA was transcribed

into cDNA using iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, 1708890) and qPCR was performed

in triplicate using iQ SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, 1708880). Gene expressions were

normalized to the expression of GAPDH. Primers used to amplify cDNAs are: *Il1b,*

forward, TGGACCTTCCAGGATGAGGACA, reverse, GTTCATCTCGGAGCCTGTAGTG;

Cxcl10, forward, ATCATCCCTGCGAGCCTATCCT, reverse, GACCTTTTTTGGCTAAA

CGCTTTC; *Cx3cr1,* forward, GAGCATCACTGACATCTACCTCC, reverse, AGAAGGCA-

GTCGTGAGCTTGCA; *P2ry12* forward, CATTGACCGCTACCTGAAGACC, reverse,

GCCTCCTGTTGGTGAGAATCATG; *Gapdh* forward, CAAAATGGTGAAGGTCGGTG,

reverse, AATGAAGGGGTCGTTGATGG.

Immunohistochemistry

Transcardiac perfusion was conducted at both 3 hours and 24 hours after LPS or

PBS injection with 20 mL PBS then 20 mL 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Santa Cruz, sc-

281692). Mouse brains were collected, fixed in 4% PFA for 24 hours, then changed to 30%

(w/v) sucrose before sectioning. 50 μM brain sections between Bregma 1 mm to -1 mm

were obtained using vibratome (Leica, VT1200S). Primary antibody anti-Rabbit-IBA1

(1:200, FUJIFILM Wako Chemicals, 019-19741), anti-Mouse-TLR4 (1:100, Abcam,

ab22048), and secondary antibody Donkey Anti-Mouse Alexa Fluor® 488 (1:500, Abcam,

ab150105), Donkey anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor™ 594 (1:500, Invitrogen, A-21207) were used.

Zeiss LSM 980 confocal microscopy with 20X objective len was used for wide-field IBA1

imaging. ImageJ was used for IBA1 fluorescence intensity quantification. Total 49 images

at 3 hours and 52 images at 24 hours were analyzed (**Fig. 4E-H**). Zeiss LSM 900 confocal

microscopy with 63X objective len was used for TLR4/IBA1 co-staining imaging and ZEN

Blue software was used for colocalization and fluorescence intensity analysis. Total 20

images were analyzed (**Fig. 5E-J**). Colocalization analysis was performed on a pixel-by-

pixel basis. Every pixel in the image was plotted in the scatter diagram based on its

intensity level from each channel. With setting the threshold in each channel, a scatter

plot with four quadrants was generated. Same threshold was used across all images and

pixels in colocalized quadrant were used for generating white "Colocalization mask"

images and further analysis. Software automatically measured colocalization coefficient

(Pearson's coefficient) and fluorescence intensity in each channel. Colocalization

coefficient normalized by TLR4 or IBA1 was calculated as sum of intensity of all pixels in

colocalized quadrant divided by sum of intensity of all pixels above the threshold value in

TLR4 channel or IBA1 channel ($\frac{\sum SumGreyCh_{1colocalized}}{\sum SumGreyCh_{1total}}$). Fluorescence intensity was

calculated as sum of all gray values from channel divided by the total number of pixels in

this channel ($\frac{\sum GreyCh1_i}{AreaCh1}$). Immunostaining and imaging were done under same condition

and same setting at same time across different groups. Biological triplicates of brain slices

from one mouse brain were employed. Results from at least three mice brains per group

were analyzed and compared.

Western blot

Western blot was performed as previously described [91]. Whole cell lysates from

mouse forebrain hemisphere were prepared using 1x lysis buffer (Cell Signaling

Technology, 9803S) containing 1x protease/phosphatase inhibitor (Cell Signaling

Technology, 5872S). Crude postsynaptic density (PSD) fraction from mouse forebrain

hemisphere were prepared following previously described protocol with some

modifications[30,92]. See details in Supplementary Information. Samples were boiled in 4x

Laemlli buffer (Bio-Rad, 161-0747) at 98 °C for 5 min before gel electrophoresis. Home-

made anti-rabbit SHANK3 C-terminus monoclonal antibody (1:1000), anti-rabbit TLR4

monoclonal antibody (1:1000, Santa Cruz, sc-293072), anti-mouse PSD95 monoclonal

antibody (1:1000, Invitrogen, MA1-046), HOMER 1b/c monoclonal HRP-conjugated

antibody (1:1000, Santa Cruz, sc-17842-HRP), and β-ACTIN monoclonal HRP-

conjugated antibody (1:1000, Invitrogen, MA5-15739-HRP) were used.

Statistical analysis

Graphpad Prism 10.0 (GraphPad Software) was used for the statistical analysis

and data plot. Differences were analyzed by student's *t*-test if comparing two variables or

using ANOVA if comparing more than two variables followed by multiple comparisons

either using statistical hypothesis testing with correction or planned comparisons without

correction. Significance was determined by two-tailed *t*-test *p* value or multiplicity adjusted

p value. For data which was not sampled from Gaussian distribution, a nonparametric

test was performed (**Fig. 4G-H**). Since unequal variance observed in LPS-evoked

cytokines and chemokines, Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests were performed

(**Fig. 4A-B**). See detailed statistical analysis for each figure in **Supplementary Table 5**.

n represents the total number of data points per group, usually meaning the mice number

with an exception that n represents brain slice numbers (**Fig. 4G-H** and **Fig. 5G-K**). Both

sexes of mice were used and balanced across genotype and treatment, with an exception

that WT+PBS and WT+LPS groups were all male mice in RNA-seq experiments.

Behavioral difference between male and female mice were explored in **Supplementary**

Fig. 1. In **Fig. 1** and **Fig. 4,** individual data points were plotted as box plot: whiskers go

down to the smallest value and up to the largest value, box extends from the 25th to 75th

percentiles and line in the middle of the box is plotted at the median. In other figures,

individual data points were plotted and presented as average ± SEM. $p < 0.05$ was

considered statistically significant. BioRender was used to create schematic diagram.

Authorship contribution statement

S-N.Q. and Y-H.J. designed the experiments. S-N.Q. collected and analyzed the data. S.W. manually scored grooming behavior. S.W., K-Y.K. and S.J. performed western blot. S-N.Q. and Y-H.J. wrote and revised the manuscripts.

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Conflict of Interest

There are no competing financial interests in relation to the work described.

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Figure legend:

Figure 1. LPS challenge induced selective behavioral impairments in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice.

A. The body weight loss after LPS intraperitoneal injection. Mouse was weighed

before injection, and at 3, 6, 24, 48, and 72 hours after LPS (1 mg/kg) or the same volume

of PBS injection. Each mouse's body weight was normalized to the weight before injection.

Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed (genotype/LPS effect F $_{(3, 50)}$ = 34.32,

p < 0.0001; Hour effect F $_{(4, 200)}$ = 84.15, *p* < 0.0001; genotype/LPS X Hour interaction F

$_{(12, 200)}$ = 22.64, *p* < 0.0001). Post-hoc Tuckey's test showed no significant difference

between WT+PBS (n = 8) and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS (n = 17) or between WT+LPS (n = 8) and

Sh3$^{+/-}$+LPS (n = 21) at 3 hours, 6 hours, 24 hours, 48 hours and 72 hours after injection.

Mouse body weight started to reduce significantly after LPS injection compared to PBS

injection at 24 hours, 48 hours and 72 hours. Mouse body weight from LPS groups

significantly increased at 72 hours compared to 48 hours after injection in both WT+LPS

and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS groups. See multiple comparison statistics in Supplementary Table 5.

B. Schematic drawing for the experimental design.

C-D. LPS challenge impaired motor function in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice. Steady speed rotarod (16

rpm, **C**) and accelerated speed rotarod (4-40 rpm, **D**) tests were performed and latency

to fall was measured. No significant difference was found between WT+PBS and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$

+PBS (16 rpm, *p* =0.5487, 4-40 rpm, *p* =0.3283) or between WT+PBS and WT+LPS (16

rpm, *p* =0.9797, 4-40 rpm, *p* =0.6711). *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS significantly reduced latency to fall

compared to *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS (16 rpm, *p* =0.0126, 4-40 rpm, *p* =0.0061) or compared to

WT+LPS (16 rpm, p =0.002, 4-40 rpm, p =0.001). $Sh3^{-/-}$ mice significantly reduced latency

to fall compared to WT+PBS (16 rpm, $p < 0.0001$, 4-40 rpm, $p < 0.0001$).

E-F. LPS challenge increased anxiety-like behavior in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice. Mouse duration

spent in the center of the open field test and travel distance in light chamber of light/dark

box test were measured. No significant difference found between WT+PBS and WT+LPS

(OFT, $p = 0.5956$, light/dark box $p = 0.6004$). $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS showed less center duration

than $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS ($p = 0.0033$) despite that $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS showed increased center duration

than WT+PBS ($p = 0.0005$), and $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS showed less travel distance in light chamber

than $Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS ($p = 0.0158$) or WT+LPS ($p = 0.0107$).

G. LPS challenge increased repetitive behavior in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice. Grooming behavior

was hand scored and compared. $Sh3^{+/-}$+LPS showed longer grooming duration than

$Sh3^{+/-}$+PBS ($p = 0.0348$) or WT+LPS ($p = 0.0135$).

H-I. LPS challenge had no effect on sociability $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice. Three-chamber tests were

conducted and duration spent in mouse chamber (S), empty chamber (E), proximity

regions in mouse chamber (SP) and empty chamber (EP) were compared (Two-way

repeated measures ANOVA. **H.** genotype effect $F_{(4, 68)} = 1.590$, $p = 0.1869$, S/E effect F

$_{(1, 68)} = 25.46$, $p < 0.0001$, genotype X S/E interaction $F_{(4, 68)} = 0.8135$, $p = 0.5209$; **I.**

genotype effect $F_{(4, 68)} = 1.398$, $p = 0.2441$, SP/EP effect $F_{(1, 68)} = 34$, $p < 0.0001$, genotype

X SP/EP interaction $F_{(4, 68)} = 0.4236$, $p = 0.7911$). No significant difference of duration

was found between S vs. E ($p = 0.5325$) or SP vs. EP ($p = 0.2529$) in $Sh3^{-/-}$ mice. All other

groups of mice showed significantly increased duration in S vs. E or SP vs. EP. * $p < 0.05$,

** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0005$, **** $p < 0.0001$

Figure 2. Mefenamic acid (MFA) partially improved the motor behavior deterioration in WT and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice.

A. Schematic drawing for experiment design. Anti-inflammatory treatment with intraperitoneal MFA injection was given to mice once every day for 7 days after LPS injection. Rotarod tests were performed 24 hours after the last does of MFA injection.

B-C. MFA partially improved the rotarod test performance. After 1-week treatment of MFA, Steady speed rotarod (16 rpm, **B**) and accelerated speed rotarod (4-40 rpm, **C**) tests were performed and latency to fall was compared. (Two-way ANOVA, **B. 16 rpm,** LPS/MFA effect $F_{(1, 37)}$ = 23.66, $p < 0.0001$, genotype effect $F_{(1,46)}$ = 1.859, $p = 0.1794$, LPS/MFA X genotype interaction $F_{(1, 37)}$ = 0.8697, $p = 0.3571$. **C. 4-40 rpm,** LPS/MFA effect $F_{(1, 85)}$ = 1.721, $p = 0.1932$, genotype effect $F_{(1,85)}$ = 4.822, $p = 0.0308$, LPS/MFA X genotype interaction $F_{(1, 85)}$ = 0.8220, $p = 0.3672$). Compared to vehicle group, MFA-treated *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ and WT mice showed increased latency to fall in 16 rpm rotarod test (*Sh3*$^{+/-}$, $p = 0.0091$; WT, $p = 0.0002$).

D-E. MFA treatment was more effective in female *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice than male ones. Two-way ANOVA was performed to compare sex difference in MFA treatment (**D. 16 rpm,** LPS/MFA effect $F_{(1, 43)}$ = 4.626, $p = 0.0372$, sex effect $F_{(1,43)}$ = 9.227, $p = 0.004$, LPS/MFA X sex interaction $F_{(1, 43)}$ = 1.858, $p = 0.1799$. **E. 4-40 rpm,** LPS/MFA effect $F_{(1, 16)}$ = 2.065, $p = 0.17$, sex effect $F_{(1,29)}$ = 2.369, $p = 0.1346$, LPS/MFA X sex interaction $F_{(1, 16)}$ = 8.046, $p = 0.0119$). MFA-treated female *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ showed significantly higher latency to fall compared to vehicle-treated female *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ (16 rpm, $p = 0.0229$; 40rpm, $p = 0.0106$) and MFA-treated male *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ (16 rpm, $p = 0.0009$; 40rpm, $p = 0.0011$). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0005$, **** $p < 0.0001$

Figure 3. Bulk RNA sequencing revealed distinct molecular mechanism underlying LPS effect on *Sh3*⁺/⁻ mice.

A-D. The volcano plot shows differentially expressed genes (DEGs) distribution. DEGs were identified in four comparisons: *Sh3*⁺/⁻+LPS vs *Sh3*⁺/⁻+PBS (**A**), WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS (**B**), *Sh3*⁺/⁻+LPS vs. WT+LPS (**C**), *Sh3*⁺/⁻+PBS vs. WT+PBS (**D**). Upregulated genes are indicated in red color, downregulated genes are indicated in blue color and DEGs below threshold are indicated in grey color.

E-F. Venn diagrams show shared upregulated and downregulated genes among four comparisons. Shared upregulated (**E**) and downregulated genes (**F**) numbers are shown within the diagrams. Comparison of *Sh3*⁺/⁻+LPS vs *Sh3*⁺/⁻+PBS is red diagram, WT+LPS vs. WT+PBS is blue diagram, *Sh3*⁺/⁻+LPS vs. WT+LPS is green diagram, and *Sh3*⁺/⁻+PBS vs. WT+PBS is yellow diagram.

G. Bubble chart shows functions of DEGs of *Sh3*⁺/⁻+LPS vs. WT+LPS comparison. Volcano plot of the negative log of p-value (Y-axis) vs. the z-score (X-axis). *p*-value was calculated using the right-tailed Fisher's Exact Test. A negative log of p-value cutoff of 1.3 (*p* < 0.05) was used to identify significantly changed functional pathways. A z-score range cutoff of ±0.1 was used to identify the activation or inhibition state of a canonical pathway. Some names of pathways are annotated in the chart. Activated pathways are orange bubbles and inhibited pathways are blue bubbles. The size of the bubbles reflects the number of genes overlapped with the pathway database.

Figure 4. Neuroinflammation increased in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice compared to WT mice in response to LPS.

A-D. Differential expression of neuroinflammatory marker genes *Il1b, Cxcl10, Cx3cr1* and *P2ry12*. At 24 hours after LPS injection, forebrain RNA was extracted, and RT-qPCR was performed. Target gene expression was normalized to the expression of the housekeeping gene GAPDH. One-way ANOVA was performed to compare gene expression in four groups (*Il1b*: F= 14.93, *p* = 0.0004, *Cxcl10*: F= 16.73, *p* = 0.0002, *Cx3cr1*: F= 14.8, *p* < 0.0001, *P2ry12*: F= 8.442, *p* = 0.0002). As expected, compared to PBS treatment, LPS significantly increased expression of *Il1b, Cxcl10*, and *Cx3cr1*, and decreased expression of *P2ry12* in both WT and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice (WT+PBS vs. WT+LPS, *Il1b*: *p* = 0.0005, *Cxcl10*: *p* = 0.0105, *Cx3cr1*: *p* = 0.0388, *P2ry12*: *p* = 0.0241; *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +PBS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS, *Il1b*: *p* = 0.002, *Cxcl10*: *p* = 0.0015, *Cx3cr1*: *p* < 0.0001, *P2ry12*: *p* = 0.0046). Significant increase of *Il1b, Cxcl10, Cx3cr1* was observed in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. WT+LPS (*Il1b*: *p* = 0.0166, *Cxcl10*: *p* = 0.0076, *Cx3cr1*: *p* = 0.0004). In contrast, significantly increased expression of *P2ry12* was observed in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS vs. WT+PBS (*p* = 0.0102) and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS vs. WT+LPS (*p* = 0.036).

E-H. Increased immunohistochemistry fluorescence intensity of IBA1 in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS mice. Mouse brain slices were collected at 3 hours and 24 hours after injection, respectively. Microglia activation was labeled with IBA1 antibody. Quantitative fluorescence intensity of IBA1 at cortex regions from WT+LPS, *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS, and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS were normalized to WT+PBS group and then compared (Kruskal-Wallis test, **G.** *p* = 0.0002; **H.** *p* < 0.0001). LPS increased microglia activation in both WT and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice at both 3 hours and 24 hours after injection compared to PBS groups (WT+PBS vs.

938　　WT+LPS, 3 hours, $p = 0.0067$, 24 hours, $p = 0.0053$; $Sh3^{+/-}$ +PBS vs. $Sh3^{+/-}$ +LPS, 3

939　　hours, $p = 0.0004$, 24 hours, $p < 0.0001$). Moreover, LPS induced significant

940　　overactivation of microglia in $Sh3^{+/-}$ mice at 24 hours after injection compared to WT mice,

941　　not 3 hours (WT+LPS vs. $Sh3^{+/-}$ +LPS, 3 hours, $p = 0.6204$, 24 hours, $p = 0.0017$). $^{*} p <$

942　　0.05, $^{**} p < 0.005$, $^{***} p < 0.0005$, $^{****} p < 0.0001$.

Figure 5. Elevated TLR4 expression and reduced HOMER 1b/c and PSD95 expression in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice.

A-D. Increased TLR4 and decreased SHANK3 protein expression in S*h3*$^{+/-}$ mice. LPS receptor TLR4 (**A-B**) and SHANK3 (**C-D**) expression were examined in whole-cell lysates using western blot at 24 hours after injection. Target protein expression was normalized to β-ACTIN expression. Quantitative protein expression from WT+LPS, *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS, and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS were normalized to WT+PBS group and then compared. Significantly elevated TLR4 expression was observed in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice compared to WT mice (WT+PBS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +PBS, $p < 0.0001$; WT+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS, $p = 0.0081$). As expected, significantly reduced SHANK3 expression was detected in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice (WT+PBS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +PBS, $p = 0.0172$; WT+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS, $p = 0.002$).

E-J. Colocalization analysis of TLR4/IBA1 between WT+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS. No difference in colocalization Pearson's coefficient between WT+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +LPS was observed ($p = 0.2309$). *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ showed smaller normalized colocalization by TLR4 ($p = 0.0093$) but similar normalized colocalization by IBA1 ($p = 0.9141$) compared to WT. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ showed decreased TLR4 cellular fluorescence intensity ($p = 0.0183$) but increased IBA1 cellular fluorescence intensity ($p = 0.0001$) than WT.

L-N. Reduced postsynaptic density (PSD) protein HOMER 1b/c and PSD95 expression in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice. HOMER 1b/c and PSD95 expression were examined in PSD fraction of forebrain using western blot at 2 weeks after injection. Target protein expression was normalized to β-ACTIN expression. Quantitative protein expression from WT+LPS, *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+PBS, and *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS were normalized to WT+PBS group and then compared. Significantly reduced HOMER 1b/c expression was observed in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ mice

966 (WT+PBS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$ +PBS, $p < 0.0001$; WT+LPS vs. *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS, $p = 0.0088$). Significant

967 decreased PSD95 expression was detected in *Sh3*$^{+/-}$+LPS compared to WT+LPS group

968 ($p = 0.0007$). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0005$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

970   **Figure 6. Summary of increased neuroinflammation susceptibility in *Sh3*^{+/-} mice.**

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Endothelial cells	LPS	Proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines
Neutrophil	TLR-4	SHANK3 HOMER PSD95
Microglia	Activated microglia	PSD: Postsynaptic density region