

Title: CRISPR-Cas9 human gene replacement and phenomic characterization in *Caenorhabditis elegans* to understand the functional conservation of human genes and decipher variants of uncertain significance

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## Abstract

Our ability to sequence genomes has vastly surpassed our ability to interpret the genetic variation we discover. This presents a major challenge in the clinical setting, where the recent application of whole exome and whole genome sequencing has uncovered thousands of genetic variants of uncertain significance. Here, we present a strategy for targeted human gene replacement and phenomic characterization based on CRISPR-Cas9 genome engineering in the genetic model organism *Caenorhabditis elegans* that will facilitate assessment of the functional conservation of human genes and structure-function analysis of disease-associated variants with unprecedented precision. We validate our strategy by demonstrating that direct single-copy replacement of the *C. elegans* ortholog (*daf-18*) with the critical human disease-associated gene Phosphatase and Tensin Homolog (*PTEN*) is sufficient to rescue multiple phenotypic abnormalities caused by complete deletion of *daf-18*, including complex chemosensory and mechanosensory impairments. In addition, we used our strategy to generate animals harboring a single copy of the known pathogenic lipid phosphatase inactive *PTEN* variant (*PTEN-G129E*) and showed that our automated *in vivo* phenotypic assays could accurately and efficiently classify this missense variant as loss-of-function. The integrated nature of the human transgenes allows for analysis of both homozygous and heterozygous variants and greatly facilitates high-throughput precision medicine drug screens. By combining genome engineering with rapid and automated phenotypic characterization, our strategy streamlines identification of novel conserved gene functions in complex sensory and learning phenotypes that can be used as *in vivo* functional assays to decipher variants of uncertain significance.

## 1 **Introduction**

2           The rapid development and application of whole exome and whole genome  
3 sequencing technology has dramatically increased the pace at which we associate genetic  
4 variation with a particular disease (Auton et al., 2015; Bamshad et al., 2011; Gonzaga-  
5 Jauregui et al., 2012; Lek et al., 2016; Metzker, 2010; Need et al., 2012; Ng et al., 2010).  
6 However, our ability to sequence genomes has vastly surpassed our ability to interpret the  
7 clinical implications of the genetic variants we discover. The majority of genetic variants  
8 identified in clinical populations are currently classified as “variants of uncertain  
9 significance” meaning their potential role as a causative agent in the disease in question,  
10 or their pathogenicity, is unknown (Richards et al., 2015). Many variants are exceedingly  
11 rare, making it extremely difficult to designate them as pathogenic using classical genetic  
12 methods such as segregation within a pedigree or by identifying multiple carriers of the  
13 variant. As such, it often remains challenging to predict clinical outcomes and make  
14 informed treatment decisions based on genetic data alone.

15           In an attempt to address this problem several computational tools have been  
16 developed that estimate the functional consequences and pathogenicity of disease-  
17 associated variants (Richards et al., 2015). These tools use a variety of predictive features  
18 such as evolutionary sequence conservation, protein structural and functional  
19 information, the prevalence of a variant in large putatively healthy control populations, or  
20 a combination of annotations (Kircher et al., 2014; Lek et al., 2016; Richards et al.,  
21 2015). Despite extensive efforts none of these tools used in isolation or combination can  
22 faithfully report on the functional effects of a large portion of disease-associated variation  
23 and their accuracy is intrinsically limited to existing experimental training data (Grimm et

24 al., 2015; Miosge et al., 2015; Starita et al., 2017). These limitations were clearly  
25 demonstrated in a recent study that showed *in vivo* functional assays of 21 human genes  
26 in yeast identified pathogenic variants with significantly higher precision and specificity  
27 than computational methods (Sun et al., 2016). This means that even for genes with well-  
28 characterized biological functions there are often hundreds of variants of uncertain  
29 functional significance (Landrum et al., 2014; Starita et al., 2017). This creates a  
30 challenging situation that requires direct assessment of the functional effects of disease-  
31 associated variants *in vivo* (Starita et al., 2017).

32 Genetically tractable model organisms are critical for discovering novel gene  
33 functions and the functional consequences of disease-associated genetic variants  
34 (Dunham and Fowler, 2013; Lehner, 2013; Manolio et al., 2017; Wangler et al., 2017).  
35 Governmental and private funding agencies are increasingly commissioning large-scale  
36 collaborative programs to use diverse genetic model organisms to decipher variants of  
37 uncertain significance (Chong et al., 2015; Gahl et al., 2016; Wangler et al., 2017).  
38 Among genetic model organisms, the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* has proven to be  
39 a particularly powerful animal model for the functional characterization of human genes  
40 *in vivo* (Kaletta and Hengartner, 2006). *C. elegans* is an ideal genetic model as it  
41 combines the throughput and tractability of a single-celled organism with the complex  
42 morphology and behavioral repertoire of a multicellular animal. In addition,  
43 approximately 60-80% of human genes have an ortholog in the *C. elegans* genome  
44 (Kaletta and Hengartner, 2006; Lai et al., 2000a; Shaye and Greenwald, 2011).  
45 Transgenic expression of human genes is routinely done to confirm functional  
46 conservation and to observe the effects of disease-associated mutations. Notable

47 examples of the utility of *C. elegans* to determine conserved human gene functions  
48 relevant to disease include the identification of presenilins as part of the gamma secretase  
49 complex, the mechanism of action of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, and the role  
50 of the insulin signaling pathway in normal and pathological ageing (Kaletta and  
51 Hengartner, 2006; Levitan et al., 1996; Levitan and Greenwald, 1995; Murphy et al.,  
52 2003; Ranganathan et al., 2001). However, traditional methods for expression of human  
53 genes in *C. elegans* rely on mosaic and variable over-expression of transgenes harbored  
54 as extrachromosomal arrays or specialized genetic backgrounds that can confound  
55 phenotypic analysis. This presents several challenges that inhibit precise analysis of the  
56 often critical but subtle effects of missense variants and impede the use of these  
57 transgenic strains in large-scale drug screens.

58         The recent advent of CRISPR-based genome editing has revolutionized structure-  
59 function analyses across model organisms (Cong et al., 2013; DiCarlo et al., 2013;  
60 Dickinson et al., 2013; Doudna and Charpentier, 2014; Friedland et al., 2013; Gratz et al.,  
61 2013; Hwang et al., 2013; Jinek et al., 2013, 2012; Li et al., 2013). This system uses a  
62 single guide RNA (sgRNA) to precisely target a nuclease (most often Cas9) to induce a  
63 DNA double strand break at a defined location (Doudna and Charpentier, 2014). The  
64 double strand break can then be repaired via the error-prone non-homologous end-joining  
65 pathway (often resulting in damaging frameshift mutations) or a more precise homology  
66 repair pathway, e.g. homology directed repair (HDR) or microhomology-mediated end  
67 joining. Following a double strand break, exogenous DNA repair templates can be used  
68 as substrates for homologous recombination, allowing virtually any desired sequence to  
69 be inserted anywhere in the genome. Importantly, CRISPR-Cas9 genome engineering is

70 remarkably efficient and robust in *C. elegans* (Dickinson and Goldstein, 2016; Norris et  
71 al., 2015).

72 Here, we present a broadly applicable strategy that adapts CRISPR-Cas9 genome  
73 engineering for targeted replacement of *C. elegans* genes with human genes. We illustrate  
74 how the library of knockout and humanized transgenics generated with this approach can  
75 be efficiently combined with automated machine vision phenotyping to rapidly discover  
76 novel gene functions, assess the functional conservation of human genes, and how this  
77 will allow for analysis of the effects of variants of uncertain significance with  
78 unprecedented precision. It is our hope that the human gene replacement and phenomic  
79 characterization strategy delineated in this article will serve both basic and health  
80 researchers alike, by serving as an open and shareable resource that will aid any genome  
81 engineer interested in understanding the functional conservation of human genes, and the  
82 functional consequences of their variants.

83

## 84 **Results**

### 85 **A general genome editing strategy for direct replacement of a *C. elegans* gene with a** 86 **single copy of its human ortholog**

87 To replace the Open Reading Frame (ORF) of an orthologous gene with a human  
88 gene our strategy first directs an sgRNA to induce a Cas9 mediated DNA double strand  
89 break immediately downstream of the ortholog start codon (Fig. 1A). A co-injected repair  
90 template containing ~500 bp homology arms targeted to the regions immediately  
91 upstream and downstream of the ortholog ORF serve as a substrate for homology  
92 directed repair. By fusing the coding DNA sequence (CDS) of a human gene of interest

93 to the upstream homology arm homology directed repair integrates the human gene in  
94 place of the ortholog at a single copy in frame (Fig. 1A).

95 To streamline genome editing we have based our method on a recently described  
96 Dual-Marker Selection (DMS) cassette screening protocol (Norris et al., 2015). The DMS  
97 Cassette consists of an antibiotic resistance gene (*Prps-27::neoR::unc-54 UTR*) and a  
98 fluorescent marker (*Pmyo-2::GFP::unc-54 UTR*) that greatly facilitates the identification  
99 transgenic animals (Norris et al., 2015). We chose this cassette over similar methods as it:  
100 1) can be used in any wild-type or mutant strain amenable to transgenesis and does not  
101 require any specialized genetic backgrounds, and 2) avoids the use of morphology and/or  
102 behavior altering selection markers that necessitate cassette excision prior to phenotypic  
103 analysis (Bend et al., 2016; Dickinson et al., 2015, 2013). In our strategy, the DMS  
104 cassette is placed between the human gene of interest and the downstream homology arm  
105 (Fig. 1A). This deletes the entire ORF of the ortholog and separates the human gene from  
106 the orthologs transcriptional terminator upon initial integration. In many cases this  
107 efficiently creates a useful deletion allele of the ortholog with no human gene expression.  
108 In the unlikely event human gene expression does occur without a transcription  
109 terminator a second repair template using the same validated homology arms and sgRNA  
110 and no human gene can be integrated to create an ortholog null. Importantly, the DMS  
111 cassette is flanked by two LoxP sites housed within synthetic introns that allow  
112 subsequent excision of the selection cassette via transient expression of Cre Recombinase  
113 (Norris et al., 2015). DMS cassette excision connects the human gene to the endogenous  
114 *C. elegans* orthologs transcriptional termination sequence such that a single copy of the  
115 human gene will now be expressed under the control of all of the orthologs 5' and 3' cis-

116 and trans-regulatory machinery (Fig. 1B). Validation of the desired edit is performed  
117 using standard PCR amplification and Sanger sequencing of both the 5' and 3' junctions  
118 of the target region (Fig. 1A).

119 For structure-function analysis of a human gene variant of uncertain significance  
120 the variant of interest is incorporated into the HDR plasmid using standard *in vitro*  
121 methods such as site-directed mutagenesis and the same genome editing process is  
122 repeated using the same validated sgRNA and homology arms. This process allows for:  
123 1) initial generation and phenotypic analysis of a complete deletion allele in the *C.*  
124 *elegans* orthologous gene, 2) direct integration of the human gene to determine if the  
125 human gene can compensate for loss of the orthologous gene, measuring functional  
126 conservation, and 3) structure-function analysis of the effects of variants of uncertain  
127 significance on wild-type gene function (Fig. 1B). Importantly, the vast majority of  
128 variants of uncertain significance identified in patients are heterozygous and the  
129 integrated nature of the transgenes generated with this strategy allow for straightforward  
130 assessment of heterozygous alleles using standard genetic crosses (Fig. 1D).

131

### 132 ***PTEN* as a prototypic disease-associated gene for targeted human gene replacement**

133 As a proof of principle, we demonstrated the utility of our strategy by focusing on  
134 the critical disease-associated gene phosphatase and tensin homolog (*PTEN*). *PTEN* is a  
135 lipid phosphatase that antagonizes the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) signaling  
136 pathway by dephosphorylating phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate (PIP3) (Li et  
137 al., 1997; Maehama and Dixon, 1998). Heterozygous germline *PTEN* mutations are  
138 associated with diverse clinical outcomes including several tumor predisposition



139 phenotypes (collectively called *PTEN* hamatoma tumor syndrome), intellectual  
140 disability, and Autism Spectrum Disorders (Hobert et al., 2014; Li et al., 1997; Danny  
141 Liaw et al., 1997; McBride et al., 2010; O’Roak et al., 2012; Orrico et al., 2009; Sanders  
142 et al., 2015; Varga et al., 2009). Despite extensive study, it is currently impossible to  
143 predict the clinical outcome of a *PTEN* mutation carrier using sequence data alone  
144 (Matreyek et al., 2018; Mighell et al., 2018). *PTEN* also has several technical advantages  
145 that make it an ideal test case: 1) *PTEN* functions in the highly conserved insulin  
146 signaling pathway that is well characterized in *C. elegans* (Ozes et al. 2001; Ogg &  
147 Ruvkun 1998; Mihaylova et al. 1999, and Fig. 2B). 2) *C. elegans* has a single *PTEN*  
148 ortholog called *daf-18* (Fig. 2 A-D) and transgenic overexpression of human *PTEN* using  
149 extrachromosomal arrays has been shown to rescue reduced longevity and dauer  
150 defective phenotypes induced by mutations in *daf-18* (Liu and Chin-Sang, 2015; Solari et  
151 al., 2005). 3) *C. elegans* harboring homozygous *daf-18* null alleles are viable and display  
152 superficially normal morphology and spontaneous locomoter behavior (Mihaylova et al.  
153 1999 and Fig. S1).

154

155 **An automated chemotaxis paradigm reveals a conserved nervous system role for**

156 ***PTEN* in controlling NaCl preference**

157 Structure-function analyses of *PTEN* variants necessitate an *in vivo* phenotypic  
158 assay that reports on *PTEN* function. When wild-type worms are grown in the presence  
159 of NaCl and their food source (*Escherichia coli*) they display naïve attractive navigation  
160 behavior toward NaCl. This behavior is called NaCl chemotaxis and can be quantified by  
161 measuring navigation behavior of a population of animals up a controlled NaCl

162 concentration gradient (Ward, 1973). Previous work has shown that *daf-18* is required for  
163 attractive navigation behavior up a concentration gradient of NaCl such that animals with  
164 deletion or reduction-of-function mutations in *daf-18* display innate *aversion* to NaCl  
165 (Tomioka et al., 2006). Interestingly, Insulin/PI3K signaling normally *actively promotes*  
166 *salt avoidance* under naive conditions and *daf-18* functions in a single chemosensory  
167 neuron (ASER) to antagonize the Insulin/PI3K pathway and promote salt attraction  
168 (Adachi et al., 2010; Tomioka et al., 2006). Using our machine vision system, the Multi-  
169 Worm Tracker, we developed an automated high-throughput NaCl chemotaxis paradigm  
170 (Fig 3A,B) and replicated the finding that *daf-18(e1375)* reduction-of-function mutants  
171 display strong aversion to NaCl (Swierczek et al. 2011 and Fig. 3C,D). We then  
172 generated a transgenic line using traditional extrachromosomal array technology that  
173 directed pan neuronal expression of wild-type human *PTEN* using the *aex-3* promoter  
174 (Kuroyanagi et al., 2010). Pan neuronal expression of human *PTEN* is able to rescue the  
175 *daf-18* reduction of function phenotype and restore attractive NaCl chemotaxis to wild-  
176 type levels (Fig 3C,D). This work establishes NaCl chemotaxis as an *in vivo* behavioral  
177 assay of conserved nervous system *PTEN* functions.

178

179 **Complete deletion of the *daf-18* ORF causes strong NaCl avoidance that is not**  
180 **rescued by direct single-copy replacement with the canonical human *PTEN* CDS**

181 Next we used our strategy to create a *daf-18* deletion allele and single-copy  
182 replacement *daf-18* with the 1212 bp canonical human *PTEN* CDS. Complete deletion of  
183 the 4723 bp *daf-18* open reading frame resulted in strong aversion to NaCl and  
184 chemotaxis down the salt gradient (Fig. 4A). Chemotaxis avoidance of worms harboring

185 the *daf-18* complete deletion allele generated using CRISPR was not significantly  
186 different from that of worms carrying the previously characterized large deletion allele  
187 *daf-18(ok480)*, confirming effective inactivation of *daf-18* (Fig. 4B). DMS cassette  
188 excision and expression of a single copy of human *PTEN* was unable to substitute for  
189 *daf-18* and did not rescue attractive NaCl chemotaxis behavior (Fig. 4C). This result was  
190 observed in two independent single-copy human *PTEN* knock in lines on several  
191 independent experimental replications (Fig. 4B). Transcription of human *PTEN* was  
192 confirmed using Reverse transcription PCR in both knock in lines (Fig. 4D). Sanger  
193 sequencing confirmed error free insertion of transgenes at base pair resolution before and  
194 after cassette excision. There are several potential reasons why expression of human  
195 *PTEN* using extrachromosomal arrays rescued *daf-18* mutant phenotypes (Solari et al.  
196 2005 and Fig. 3C,D) while targeted single-copy replacement with *PTEN* did not (Fig.  
197 4C). The two most prominent differences between these two technologies are the  
198 expression level of the transgenes and the use of the endogenous 3' UTR in the CRISPR  
199 knock in versus the *unc-54* myosin 3' UTR used in most *C. elegans* transgenes to ensure  
200 proper processing of transcripts in all tissues, including all constructs previously shown  
201 to rescue *daf-18* phenotypes with human *PTEN* (Merritt and Seydoux, 2010; Solari et al.,  
202 2005, and Fig. 3C,D).

203

204 **A streamlined human gene replacement strategy functionally replaces *daf-18* with**  
205 **human *PTEN***

206 In order to address these limitations and increase the speed of transgenesis we  
207 created an alternate repair template strategy that includes a transcriptional termination

208 sequence in the upstream homology arm so that expression of the human gene begins  
209 immediately upon integration (Fig. 5A). We included the validated *unc-54* 3' UTR  
210 sequence in the upstream homology arm fused to the 3' end of human *PTEN* (Fig. 5A).  
211 Expression of wild-type human *PTEN* using this genome editing strategy rescued NaCl  
212 chemotaxis, indicating production of functional PTEN immediately upon genomic  
213 integration prior to cassette excision (Fig. 5B). This alternate approach also offers the  
214 added benefits of increased throughput (as a second injection step to excise the cassette  
215 was not required for human gene expression as it is in the first strategy) and the option  
216 for retained visual transgenic markers (either within the selection cassette or by adding a  
217 2A sequence to drive reporter expression from the same promoter), which simplifies the  
218 generation and phenotypic analysis of heterozygotes and double mutants (Fig. 5A, Ahier  
219 and Jarriault, 2014; Calarco and Norris, 2018; Norris et al., 2017). Given the  
220 demonstrated versatility of CRISPR genome editing in *C. elegans*, these results suggest  
221 our strategy should be broadly applicable for *in vivo* analysis of diverse human disease-  
222 associated genes.

223

224 ***daf-18* deletion causes mechanosensory hyporesponsivity that is rescued by targeted**  
225 **replacement with human *PTEN***

226 A long-standing goal has been to understand how human disease-associated  
227 variants alter normal gene function to produce sensory and learning abnormalities  
228 characteristic of diverse neurogenetic disorders. The massive number variants of  
229 uncertain significance recently implicated in the etiology neurogenetic disorders  
230 necessitates a dramatic increase in throughput of both transgenic construction and

231 behavioral phenotyping if this goal is to be achieved (Ben-Shalom et al., 2017;  
232 Geschwind and Flint, 2015; Lim et al., 2017; Sanders et al., 2015; Starita et al., 2017;  
233 Wangler et al., 2017). By combing streamlined human gene integration with rapid  
234 machine vision phenotypic analysis of *C. elegans* our strategy greatly simplifies the  
235 identification of novel conserved gene functions in complex sensory and learning  
236 phenotypes.

237         We explored whether *daf-18* mutants displayed behavioral deficits in  
238 mechanosensory responding and/or habituation, a conserved form of non-associative  
239 learning that is altered in several neurodevelopmental and neuropsychiatric disorders  
240 (McDiarmid et al., 2018, 2017; Rankin et al., 2009; Stessman et al., 2017; Timbers et al.,  
241 2017; van der Voet et al., 2014). When a non-localized mechanosensory stimulus is  
242 delivered to the side of the petri plate *C. elegans* are cultured on they respond by eliciting  
243 a brief reversal before resuming forward locomotion. Wild-type *C. elegans* habituate to  
244 repeated stimuli by learning to decrease the probability of eliciting a reversal (Rankin et  
245 al., 1990). To determine if *daf-18* is important for mechanoresponding and/or non-  
246 associative learning we examined habituation of the *daf-18(e1375)* and *daf-18* complete  
247 deletion mutants. Compared to wild-type animals both *daf-18(e1375)* reduction of  
248 function and *daf-18* complete deletion mutants exhibited significantly reduced probability  
249 of eliciting a reversal response throughout the habituation training session, indicating  
250 mechanosensory hyporesponsivity (Fig. 6A,B). Despite this hyporesponsivity, the  
251 plasticity of responses, or the pattern of the gradual decrement in the probability of  
252 emitting of a reversal response throughout the training session was not significantly  
253 altered in *daf-18* mutants (Fig. 6A,B,E). Importantly, targeted single-copy replacement of

254 *daf-18* with human *PTEN* was sufficient to rescue the mechanosensory hyporesponsivity  
255 phenotype across the training session towards wild-type levels (Fig. 6D). These results  
256 identify a novel conserved role for *PTEN* in mechanosensory responding, a fundamental  
257 biological process disrupted in diverse genetic disorders (Badr et al., 1987; McDiarmid et  
258 al., 2017; Orefice et al., 2016). More broadly, they illustrate how the library of transgenic  
259 animals generated with our strategy can be used to rapidly characterize the role of diverse  
260 human genes in complex sensory and learning behaviors. These novel phenotypes can  
261 then be used to investigate the functional consequences of disease-associated variants in  
262 intact and freely behaving animals and to screen for therapeutics that reverse the effects  
263 of a particular patients missense variant.

264

265 **Human gene replacement and *in vivo* phenotypic assessment accurately identifies**  
266 **functional consequences of the pathogenic PTEN-G129E variant**

267 To demonstrate the feasibility of our human gene replacement strategy for  
268 assessing variants of uncertain significance we set out to determine whether our *in vivo*  
269 functional assays could discern known pathogenic variants. Early studies characterizing  
270 the role of PTEN as a tumor suppressor suggested impaired protein phosphatase activity  
271 was key to the etiology of PTEN disorders (Tamura et al., 1998). However, this notion  
272 was challenged by the identification of cancer patients harboring a missense mutation that  
273 changes a glycine residue in the catalytic signature motif to a glutamate, which was  
274 predicted to abolish the lipid phosphatase activity of PTEN while leaving the protein  
275 phosphatase activity intact (Liaw et al., 1997; Myers et al., 1997). Subsequent  
276 biochemical analyses supported the now widely accepted view that the lipid phosphatase

277 activity of PTEN is critical to its tumor suppressor activity (Myers et al., 1998).  
278 We used site-directed mutagenesis to incorporate the PTEN-G129E (*PTEN*,  
279 c386G>A) missense variant into our repair template and used our human gene  
280 replacement strategy to replace *daf-18* with a single copy of human PTEN-G129E (Fig.  
281 7A). Animals harboring the PTEN-G129E variant displayed strong NaCl avoidance  
282 equivalent to animals carrying the complete *daf-18* deletion allele, indicating loss-of-  
283 function (Fig. 7B). Similarly, PTEN-G129E mutants also displayed mechanosensory  
284 hyporesponsivity that was not significantly different from *daf-18* deletion carriers (Fig.  
285 7C). These *in vivo* phenotypic results accurately classify the pathogenic PTEN-G129E as  
286 a strong loss-of-function variant. In addition, by taking advantage of a pathogenic variant  
287 with well-characterized biochemical effects these results identify a necessary role for  
288 PTEN lipid phosphatase activity in both chemotaxis and mechanosensory responding,  
289 providing novel insight into the molecular mechanisms underlying these forms of sensory  
290 processing. Taken together, these results demonstrate the potential of human gene  
291 replacement and phenomic characterization to rapidly identify the functional  
292 consequences variants of uncertain significance.

293

## 294 **Discussion**

295 We have developed and validated a broadly applicable strategy for targeted human  
296 gene replacement and phenomic characterization in *C. elegans* that will facilitate  
297 assessment of the functional conservation of human genes and structure-function analysis  
298 of variants of uncertain significance with unprecedented precision. We established an  
299 automated NaCl chemotaxis paradigm and demonstrate that pan neuronal overexpression

300 or direct replacement of *daf-18* with its human ortholog *PTEN* using CRISPR is  
301 sufficient to rescue reversed NaCl chemotaxis preference induced by complete *daf-18*  
302 deletion. We further identified a novel mechanosensory hyporesponsive phenotype for  
303 *daf-18* mutants that could also be rescued by targeted replacement with human *PTEN*. *In*  
304 *vivo* characterization of mutants harboring a single copy of the known lipid phosphatase  
305 inactive G129E variant accurately classified this variant as pathogenic and revealed a  
306 critical role for PTEN lipid phosphatase activity in NaCl chemotaxis and  
307 mechanosensory responding. As a resource article, we provide novel high-throughput *in*  
308 *vivo* functional assays for *PTEN*, as well as validated strains, reagents, sgRNA and repair  
309 template constructs to catalyze further analysis of this critical human disease-associated  
310 gene. More broadly, we provide a conceptual framework that illustrates how genome  
311 engineering and automated machine vision phenotyping can be combined to efficiently  
312 generate and characterize a library of knockout and humanized transgenic strains that will  
313 allow for straightforward and precise analysis of human genes and disease-associated  
314 variants *in vivo* (Fig. 8).

315

### 316 **Comparing CRISPR targeted human gene replacement with orthology-based** 317 **variant assessment methods**

318 To date, the most widely used genome editing-based human disease variant  
319 assessment strategy in *C. elegans* uses sequence alignments to identify and engineer the  
320 corresponding amino acid change into the orthologous *C. elegans* gene (Bend et al.,  
321 2016; Bulger et al., 2017; Canning et al., 2018; Pierce et al., 2018; Prior et al., 2017;  
322 Sorkaç et al., 2016; Troulinaki et al., 2018). A major advantage of this approach is that by



323 using the *C. elegans* gene, intronic regulation, protein-protein interactions, subcellular  
324 localization, and biochemical activity of the protein of interest are, by design, perfectly  
325 modeled by *C. elegans*. Even when expressed at physiologically relevant levels directly  
326 from the orthologs native loci, and with evidence of phenotypic rescue, it is not  
327 guaranteed a transgenic human protein will recapitulate all functions and interactions of  
328 the orthologous *C. elegans* protein. This presents an important consideration when  
329 attempting to replace *C. elegans* proteins that must interact in extremely precise  
330 heteromeric complexes to perform their molecular functions (e.g. certain ion channel  
331 subunits) (Bend et al., 2016; Prior et al., 2017). The most obvious limitation of this  
332 approach is that it can only be used to study orthologous amino acids. Amino acids that  
333 have been conserved throughout evolution are, by definition, the least tolerant to  
334 mutation and are thus far more likely to be detrimental to protein function when mutated  
335 (Starita et al., 2017; Weile et al., 2017). Indeed, many variant effect prediction algorithms  
336 rely on sequence conservation as the main predictor that a variant will be deleterious  
337 (Richards et al., 2015; Starita et al., 2017). It is also important to note that a large portion  
338 of amino acids will not be conserved to humans (e.g. >50% of amino acids are not  
339 conserved from DAF-18 to PTEN, Fig. 2C) and alignment algorithms that identify  
340 orthologous amino acids are imperfect. Many current implementations of orthologous  
341 amino acid engineering also require constant generation of completely new sgRNAs and  
342 repair templates for subsequent edits. Human gene replacement, in contrast, allows any  
343 coding variant of uncertain significance to be studied *in vivo* using the same validated  
344 sgRNA and homology arms.

345 One potential limitation of human gene replacement is that it relies on a *C. elegans*

346 ortholog to replace. Depending on the orthology prediction program used estimates  
347 suggest there are *C. elegans* orthologs for 60-80% of human disease-associated genes  
348 meaning their will not be an ortholog available for a minority of human genes (Kaletta  
349 and Hengartner, 2006; Lai et al., 2000b; Shaye and Greenwald, 2011). This is even less  
350 likely to be a problem for disease variant modelling, as disease-associated genes are more  
351 likely to be highly conserved (Aerts et al., 2006; López-Bigas and Ouzounis, 2004). A  
352 recent study also showed that ~10% of human disease-associated genes are able to  
353 functionally substitute for their yeast paralogs (in addition to orthologs), further  
354 increasing the number of human genes that can be studied by replacement (Yang et al.,  
355 2017). Still, in the event there is no suitable *C. elegans* ortholog or paralog available for a  
356 human gene of interest the human gene can simply be integrated at a putatively neutral  
357 genomic location using CRISPR or transposon mobilization and expressed from a  
358 heterologous promoter (Frøkjær-Jensen et al., 2014, 2012, 2008). This approach can be  
359 used to screen for phenotypes induced by expression of any human gene and to determine  
360 whether a variant exacerbates or eliminates these effects (Baruah et al., 2017).

361         With the rapidly expanding set of precise genome editing techniques available to *C.*  
362 *elegans*, researchers interested in variants of uncertain significance now have the freedom  
363 to choose the approach that best suits their particular needs and interests. The approaches  
364 described here provide a diverse collection of methods that can be sequentially tested in a  
365 pragmatic hierarchy of precision, beginning with direct replacement and working down  
366 until phenotypic rescue is achieved. Regardless, it will always be ideal to have  
367 corroborating evidence of variant effect from multiple techniques, indeed multiple model  
368 systems, to best inform clinical decisions.

369

370 **Combining human gene replacement and automated phenomic characterization to**  
371 **discover conserved gene functions and establish variant functional assays**

372 A necessary step in the establishment of human gene functional assays is the  
373 identification of phenotypes that are rescued by or induced upon expression of the  
374 reference (wild-type) human gene, as we have done here for human *PTEN* and NaCl  
375 chemotaxis. Indeed, the establishment of functional assays remains a major bottleneck for  
376 variant assessment across species (Starita et al., 2017; Weile et al., 2017). While  
377 traditional extrachromosomal array transgenes offer a quick way to establish such assays  
378 several aspects of these transgenes can severely impede this process. These include but  
379 are not limited to: 1) variable overexpression of transgenes which can lead to silencing of  
380 transgenes in certain tissues, complicating phenotypic analysis (e.g. multi-copy  
381 transgenes are expressed in the soma but silenced in the germline while low- and single-  
382 copy transgenes are expressed in both) (Kelly et al., 1997; Merritt and Seydoux, 2010),  
383 and 2) variably mosaic expression which can make it extremely difficult to assess rescue  
384 of partially penetrant and subtle complex phenotypes, as an animal must simultaneously  
385 carry the extrachromosomal array and be one of the members of the population that  
386 displays the partially penetrant phenotype that can often be difficult to score.

387 The human gene replacement approach described here allows for generation of  
388 ortholog deletion alleles directly in any wild-type or mutant strain amenable to  
389 transgenesis using the same reagents designed for replacement, thereby reducing the  
390 confounding effects of background mutations on phenotype discovery. The use of  
391 excisable selectable markers that do not severely alter morphology, baseline locomotion,

392 and several evoked sensory behaviors further simplifies phenotypic analysis and removes  
393 the need for any specialized genetic backgrounds (Norris et al. 2015 and Figs 4, 5, 6, S1).  
394 Using this approach in combination with machine vision we provide two *in vivo*  
395 functional assays for human *PTEN*, NaCl chemotaxis and mechanosensory responsivity.  
396 In particular, NaCl chemotaxis possesses several characteristics that make it an ideal  
397 functional assay: 1) a large functional range between deletion and human gene rescue to  
398 discern potentially subtle functional differences among missense variants; 2) scalability  
399 as many plates can be run simultaneously; 3) straightforward analysis using an  
400 automatically calculated preference index (alternatively many labs score chemotaxis  
401 manually by simple blinded counting). Importantly, these reagents and functional assays  
402 can now be used in precision medicine drug screens aimed at identifying compounds that  
403 counteract the affect of a particular patient's missense variant. Further broad-scale  
404 phenomic characterization of targeted knockouts and mutant libraries combined with new  
405 databases that curate ortholog functional annotation across model organisms should  
406 expedite the process of *in vivo* functional assay development (Lee et al., 2018;  
407 McDiarmid et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017; Yemini et al., 2013).

408

#### 409 **Further applications of targeted human gene replacement**

410 One of the goals of this resources article is to illustrate how Cas9-triggered  
411 homologous recombination can be adapted to directly replace *C. elegans* genes with  
412 human genes. An exciting adaptation of this approach will be to combine targeted human  
413 gene insertions with bi-partite systems for precise spatial-temporal control of human  
414 transgene expression, as has recently been done to overexpress human genes as UAS-

415 cDNA constructs in *Drosophila* (Luo et al. 2017; Lee et al. 2018; Wangler et al. 2017).  
416 The recent and long-awaited development of the cGAL4-UAS system should allow a  
417 similar approach to be developed for *C. elegans*, currently the only organism where the  
418 complete cell lineage and neuronal wiring diagram is known (Sulston et al., 1983;  
419 Sulston and Horvitz, 1977; Wang et al., 2016; White et al., 1986).

420

421 While one of the clearest uses for targeted replacement is precise structure-function  
422 analysis of variants of uncertain significance there are several exciting applications  
423 beyond modeling disease-associated alleles. Targeted human gene replacement is also  
424 particularly well suited for investigation of the evolutionary principles that determine the  
425 replaceability of genes. By allowing for human gene expression immediately upon  
426 genomic integration this approach should be also adaptable to essential genes. A  
427 homozygous integrant will only be obtained if the human gene can substitute for the  
428 orthologous essential gene, creating a complementation test out of the transgenesis  
429 process. This will allow for systematic and precise interrogation of the sequence  
430 characteristics and functional properties required for successful human gene replacement  
431 (Kachroo et al., 2015). A library of humanized worms would also open the door to the  
432 rich resources of tools available to visualize and manipulate human genes and proteins  
433 that are often unavailable for *C. elegans* researchers (e.g. high-quality antibodies,  
434 biochemically characterized or known pathogenic control variants, and experimentally  
435 determined crystal structures, Figs 2, 7; Berman et al. 2000). Given the throughput that  
436 has been achieved for reporter gene analysis (several thousand genes) and genome editing  
437 in *C. elegans* it should be possible to generate a humanized *C. elegans* library of similar

438 size to those recently created in yeast (Dickinson and Goldstein, 2016; Dupuy et al.,  
439 2007; Hamza et al., 2015; Hunt-Newbury et al., 2007; Kachroo et al., 2015; Norris et al.,  
440 2017; Sun et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2017). Integrated transgenes would offer the  
441 possibility of humanizing entire cellular processes for detailed *in vivo* analysis in a  
442 relatively complex yet tractable metazoan with increasingly powerful tools for spatial-  
443 temporal control of transgene expression and protein degradation (Armenti et al., 2014;  
444 Wang et al., 2016; S. Wang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015).

445       Deep mutational scanning and related technologies have recently made it feasible to  
446 characterize the functional effects of virtually every possible amino acid change of a  
447 protein on a particular cellular phenotype (Fowler et al., 2010; Fowler and Fields, 2014).  
448 Several such exhaustive sequence-function maps have been recently been generated in  
449 yeast and human cell culture systems (Findlay et al., 2018, 2014; Majithia et al., 2016;  
450 Matreyek et al., 2018; Mighell et al., 2018; Weile et al., 2017). These tools offer amazing  
451 resources that serve as 'lookup tables' of functional missense variation in human genes, to  
452 enable experimentally confirmed variant interpretation immediately upon first clinical  
453 presentation (Starita et al., 2017; Weile et al., 2017). An ambitious and exciting goal for  
454 the *C. elegans* community will be to further streamline genome engineering and high-  
455 throughput phenotyping to achieve the first comprehensive sequence-function map in a  
456 metazoan.

457

458

459

460

## 461 **Materials and Methods**

### 462 **Strains and culture**

463 Worms were cultured on Nematode Growth Medium (NGM) seeded with  
464 *Escherichia coli* (OP50) as described previously (Brenner, 1974). N2 Bristol, and  
465 CB1375 *daf-18(e1375)* strains were obtained from the *Caenorhabditis* Genetics Center  
466 (University of Minnesota, USA). *daf-18(e1375)* harbors a 30–base pair insertion in the  
467 fourth exon and is predicted to insert six amino acids before introducing an early stop  
468 codon that truncates the C-terminal half of the protein while leaving the phosphatase  
469 domain intact (Ogg and Ruvkun, 1998).

470 The following strains were created for this work:

471

472 VG674 *daf-18(e1375); yvEx674[paex-3::PTEN::unc-54; pmyo-2::mCherry::unc-54*  
473 *UTR]*

474 VG810-813 *daf-18(e1375); yvEx810-813[paex-3::PTEN::unc-54 UTR; pmyo-*  
475 *2::mCherry::unc-54 UTR]*

476

477 VG712 *daf-18(yv3[daf-18p::PTEN + LoxP pmyo-2::GFP::unc-54 UTR prps-*  
478 *27::NeoR::unc-54 UTR LoxP + daf-18 UTR])*

479 VG713 *daf-18(yv4[daf-18p::PTEN + LoxP pmyo-2::GFP::unc-54 UTR prps-*  
480 *27::NeoR::unc-54 UTR LoxP + daf-18 UTR])*

481

482 VG714 *daf-18(yv5[daf-18p::PTEN + LoxP + daf-18 UTR ])*

483 VG715 *daf-18(yv5[daf-18p::PTEN + LoxP + daf-18 UTR])*

484

485 VG817 *daf-18(yv7[daf-18p::GFP::T2A::PTEN::unc-54 UTR + LoxP pmyo-*

486 *2::GFP::unc-54 UTR prps-27::NeoR::unc-54 UTR LoxP + daf-18 UTR])*

487 VG818 *daf-18(yv8[daf-18p::GFP::T2A::PTEN::unc-54 UTR + LoxP pmyo-*

488 *2::GFP::unc-54 UTR prps-27::NeoR::unc-54 UTR LoxP + daf-18 UTR])*

489

490 VG867 *daf-18(yv14[daf-18p::GFP::T2A::PTEN-G129E::unc-54 UTR + LoxP pmyo-*

491 *2::GFP::unc-54 UTR prps-27::NeoR::unc-54 UTR LoxP + daf-18 UTR])*

492

### 493 **Strain and plasmid generation**

494 The reference *PTEN* CDS (UniProt consensus, identifier: P60484-1) was obtained

495 from a pCMV-*PTEN* plasmid (Addgene plasmid #28298) and cloned into a TOPO

496 gateway entry clone (Invitrogen) according to manufacturers instructions. The *PTEN*

497 entry clone was recombined with an pDEST-*aex-3p* destination vector (obtained from Dr.

498 Hidehito Kuroyanagi; Kuroyanagi et al., 2010) to generate the *aex-3p::PTEN::unc-54*

499 *UTR* rescue construct using gateway cloning (Invitrogen), according to manufacturers

500 instructions.

501 The Moerman lab guide selection tool (<http://genome.sfu.ca/crispr/>) was used to

502 identify the *daf-18* targeting sgRNA. The *daf-18* sgRNA sequence:

503 GGAGGAGGAGTAACCATTGG was cloned into the *pU6::klp-12* sgRNA vector

504 (obtained from Calarco lab) using site-directed mutagenesis and used for all editing

505 experiments. The *daf-18p::PTEN* CDS and *daf-18p::GFP::T2A::PTEN::unc-54 UTR*



506 upstream homology arms were synthesized by IDT and cloned into the loxP\_myo2\_neoR  
507 repair construct (obtained from Calarco lab) using Gibson Assembly.

508 *C. elegans* wild-type N2 strain was used for all CRISPR editing experiments.

509 Genome edits were created as previously described (Norris et al., 2015). In brief,  
510 plasmids encoding sgRNA, Cas9 co-transformation markers pCFJ90 and pCFJ104  
511 (Jorgensen lab, Addgene) and the selection cassette flanked by homology arms (~500 bp)  
512 containing *PTEN* were injected into wild-type worms. Animals containing the desired  
513 insertions were identified by G418 resistance, loss of extrachromosomal array markers,  
514 and uniform dim fluorescence of the inserted GFP.

515

#### 516 **Genotype confirmation**

517 Correct replacement of the *daf-18* ORF with human *PTEN* was confirmed by  
518 amplifying the two regions spanning the upstream and downstream insertion borders  
519 using PCR followed by Sanger sequencing (primer binding locations depicted in Fig. 1).  
520 The genotyping strategy is essentially as described for deletion allele generation via DMS  
521 cassette insertion in (Norris et al. 2015).

522 The forward and reverse primers used to amplify the upstream insertion region  
523 were TGCCGTTTGAATTAGCGTGC (located within the *daf-18* genomic promoter  
524 region) and CCCTCAATGTCTCTACTTGT (located within the *myo-2* promoter of the  
525 selection cassette) respectively.

526

527 The forward and reverse primers used to amplify the downstream insertion region were  
528 TTCCTCGTGCTTTACGGTATCG (located within the Neomycin resistance gene) and

529 CTCAACACGTTCCGAGGGTAAA (located downstream of the *daf-18* genomic coding  
530 region) respectively.

531

532 Following cassette excision via injection of cre-recombinase the *daf-18* promoter

533 (TGCCGTTTGAATTAGCGTGC) and *daf-18* downstream

534 (CTCAACACGTTCCGAGGGTAAA) primers were used to amplify human *PTEN* and

535 confirm error free insertion at the *daf-18* locus via Sanger sequencing (Fig. 1).

536

### 537 **RNA extraction, library preparation, and cDNA amplification**

538 Total RNA was isolated from mixed stage VG714 and VG715 *PTEN* knock in

539 animals using a GeneJET RNA Purification Kit (ThermoFisher) according to

540 manufacturers instructions. Total RNA was treated with DNase (New England Biolabs)

541 and purified with an RNeasy MinElute spin column (Qiagen) according to manufacturers

542 instructions. cDNA libraries were prepared from crude and purified total RNA using

543 Superscript III (Invitrogen). All genes were amplified from cDNA libraries with Platinum

544 Taq DNA Polymerase (ThermoFisher) and gene-specific primer sets.

545

546 The forward and reverse primers used to amplify the *PTEN* CDS were

547 ATGACAGCCATCATCAAAGA and TCAGACTTTTGTAATTTGTG respectively.

548

549 The forward and reverse *cmk-1* intronic control primers (Ardiel et al., 2018) were

550 AGGGTAGGCTAGAGTCTGGGATAGAT and

551 ACGACTCCGTTGTCGTGCATAAAC respectively.

552 **Protein structure modeling and visualization**

553 The PTEN 1D5R reference structure (Berman et al., 2000; Lee et al., 1999) was  
554 visualized using PyMOL software (DeLano, 2002). Structural models for full-length  
555 human PTEN, DAF-18 53-506, and full-length DAF-18 were predicted using Phyre2  
556 (Kelley et al., 2015) and visualized using PyMOL.

557

558 **NaCl chemotaxis behavioral assays**

559 The chemotaxis behavioral assay was conducted on a 6 cm assay plate (2% agar),  
560 where a salt gradient was formed overnight by inserting a 2% agar plug containing 50mM  
561 of NaCl (approximately 5 mm in diameter) 1 cm from the edge of the plate. A control 2%  
562 agar plug without NaCl was inserted 1 cm from the opposite edge of the plate. Strains  
563 were grown on NGM plates seeded with *E. coli* (OP50) for 3 or 4 days. Worms on the  
564 plates were collected and washed three times using M9 buffer before being pipetted onto  
565 an unseeded NGM plate to remove excess buffer and select animals carrying  
566 transformation markers. Adult worms were transferred and placed at the centre of the  
567 assay plates and were tracked for 40 minutes on the Multi-Worm Tracker (Swierczek et  
568 al., 2011). After the tracking period, the chemotaxis index was calculated as  $(A - B)/(A +$   
569  $B)$ , where A was the number of animals that were located in a 1.5 cm-wide region on the  
570 side of the assay plate containing the 2% agar plug with 50mM NaCl and B was the  
571 number of animals that were located in a 1.5 cm-wide region on the side of the assay  
572 plate containing the 2% agar plug without NaCl (Fig. 3B). Animals not located in either  
573 region (ie. the middle section of the assay plate) were not counted towards the  
574 chemotaxis index. One hundred to two hundred animals were used per plate, and two or

575 three plate replicates were used for each line in each experiment. Any statistical  
576 comparisons were carried out on plates assayed concurrently (i.e. on the same day).

577

### 578 **Mechanosensory habituation behavioral assays**

579 Worms were synchronized for behavioral testing on Petri plates containing  
580 Nematode Growth Media (NGM) seeded with 50  $\mu$ l of OP50 liquid culture 12-24 hours  
581 before use. Five gravid adults were picked to plates and allowed to lay eggs for 3-4 hours  
582 before removal. The animals were maintained in a 20°C incubator for 72 hours. Plates of  
583 worms were placed into the tapping apparatus and after a 100s acclimatization period, 30  
584 taps were administered at a 10s ISI. Comparisons of “final response” comprised the  
585 average of the final three stimuli. Any statistical comparisons were carried out on plates  
586 assayed concurrently (i.e. on the same day).

587

### 588 **Multi-worm tracker behavioral analysis and statistics**

589 Multi-Worm Tracker software (version 1.2.0.2) was used for stimulus delivery  
590 and image acquisition (Swierczek et al., 2011). Behavioral quantification with  
591 Choreography software (version 1.3.0\_r103552) used “--shadowless”, “--minimum-  
592 move-body 2”, and “--minimum-time 20” filters to restrict the analysis to animals that  
593 moved at least 2 body lengths and were tracked for at least 20 s. The MeasureReversal  
594 plugin was used to identify reversals occurring within 1 s ( $dt = 1$ ) of the mechanosensory  
595 stimulus onset. Custom MatLab and R scripts organized and summarized Choreography  
596 output files. Final figures were generated using GraphPad Prism version 7.00 for Mac OS  
597 X. Each experiment was independently replicated at least twice. No blinding was

598 necessary because the Multi-Worm Tracker scores behavior objectively. Morphology  
599 metrics, baseline locomotion metrics, initial and final reversal responses, habituation  
600 difference scores, or chemotaxis indices from all plates were pooled and metrics were  
601 compared across strains with ANOVA and Tukey honestly significant difference (HSD)  
602 tests. For all statistical tests an alpha value of 0.05 was used to determine significance.

603

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#### 614 **Competing interests**

615 The authors declare no competing interests.

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620

621 **Data availability**

622 The data sets generated during the current study are available from the  
623 corresponding author on reasonable request. The code used to analyze data in the current  
624 study is available from the first author on reasonable request. All strains and reagents are  
625 available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

626

627 **Author Contribution Statement**

628 TAM, VA, KM, and DGM conceived the genome editing strategy, designed and  
629 built constructs. TAM, VA, and JL generated the transgenic lines. TAM, VA, and KM  
630 performed genotyping and RT-PCR experiments. TAM and CHR designed the behavioral  
631 experiments. TAM, and ADL performed the behavioral experiments. TAM wrote custom  
632 scripts in R to organize the data and TAM and CHR analyzed the data. TAM wrote the  
633 first draft of the manuscript and made the figures. TAM, VA, KM, DGM, and CHR  
634 edited and co-wrote the final manuscript.

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645

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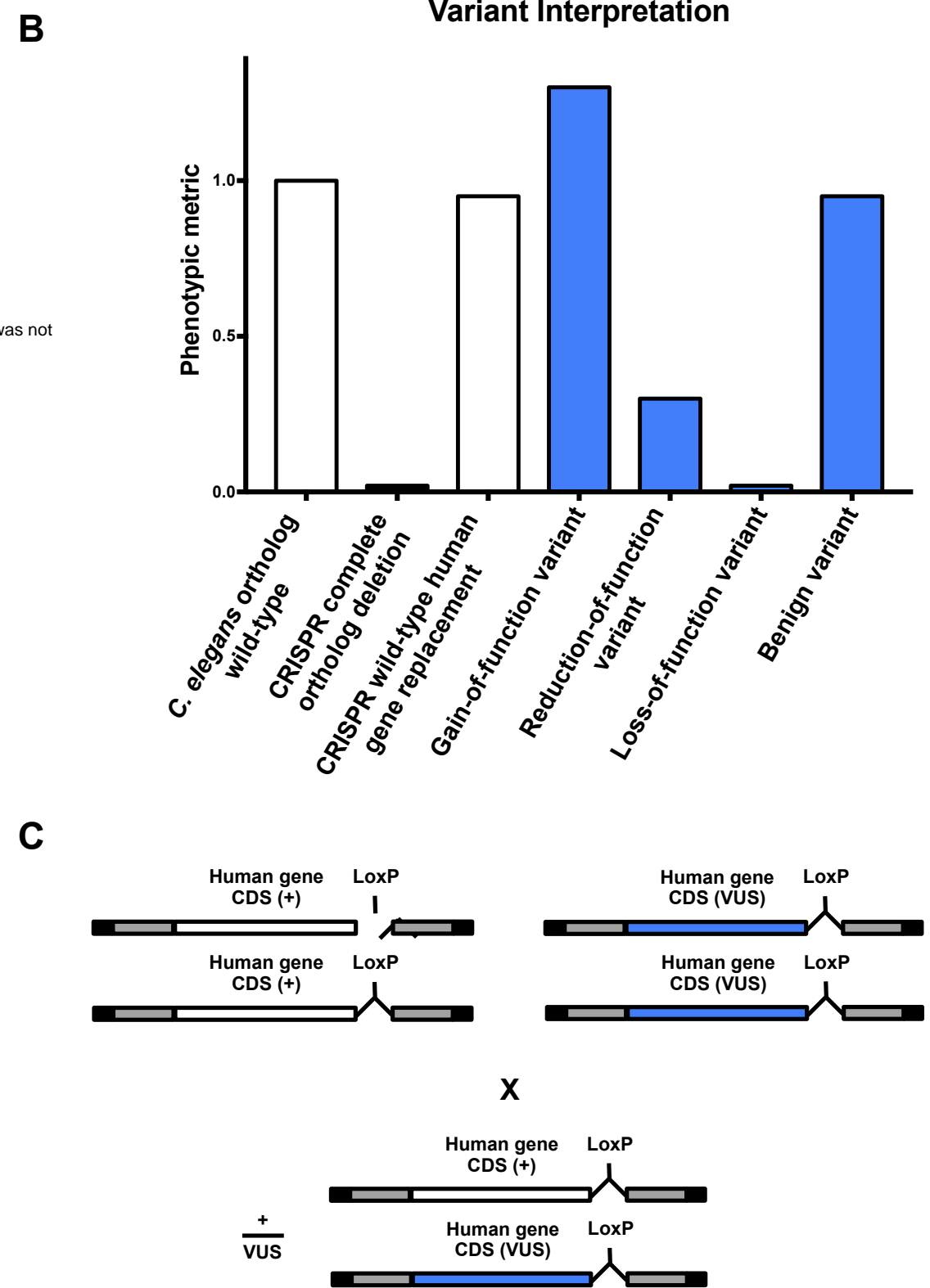
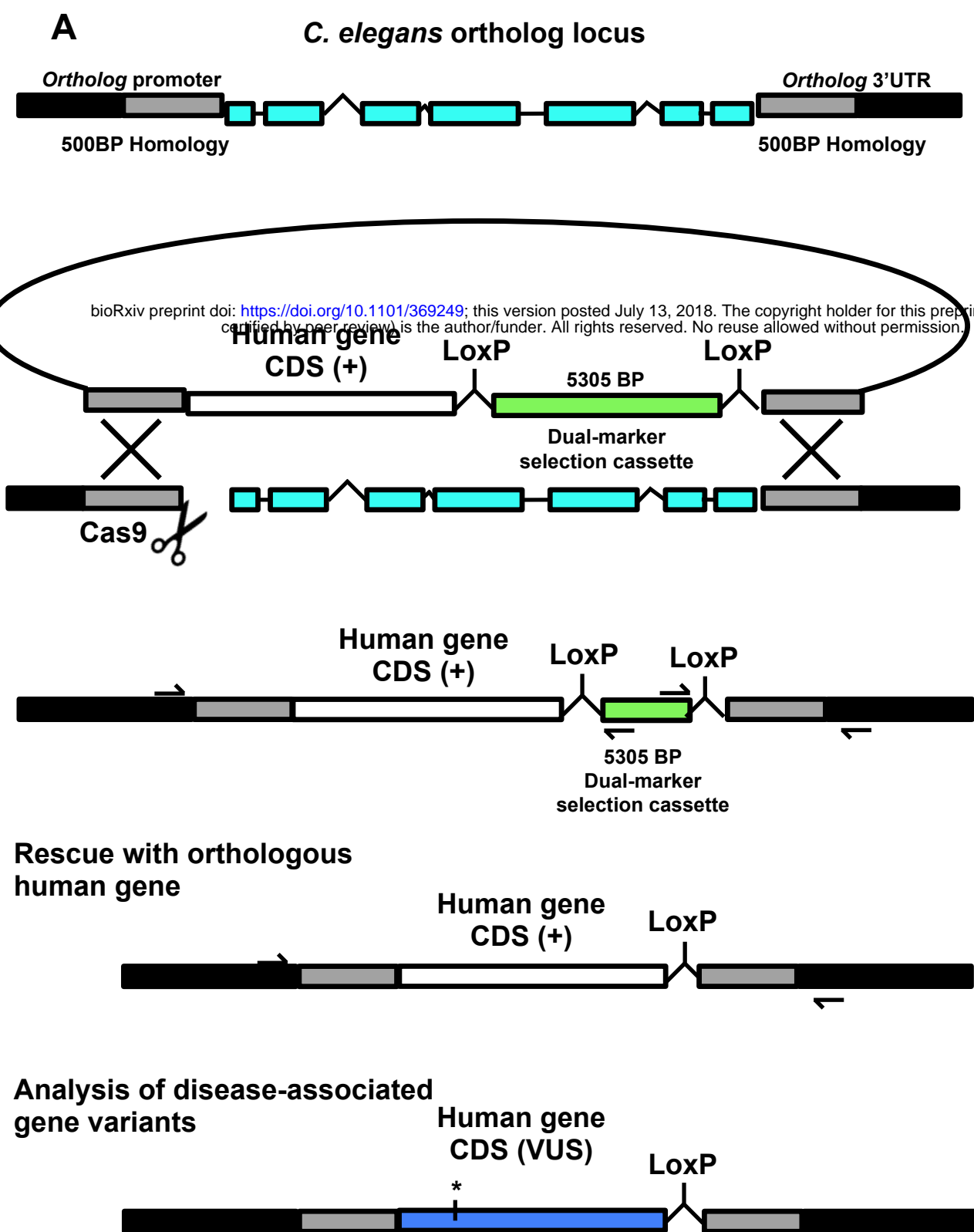


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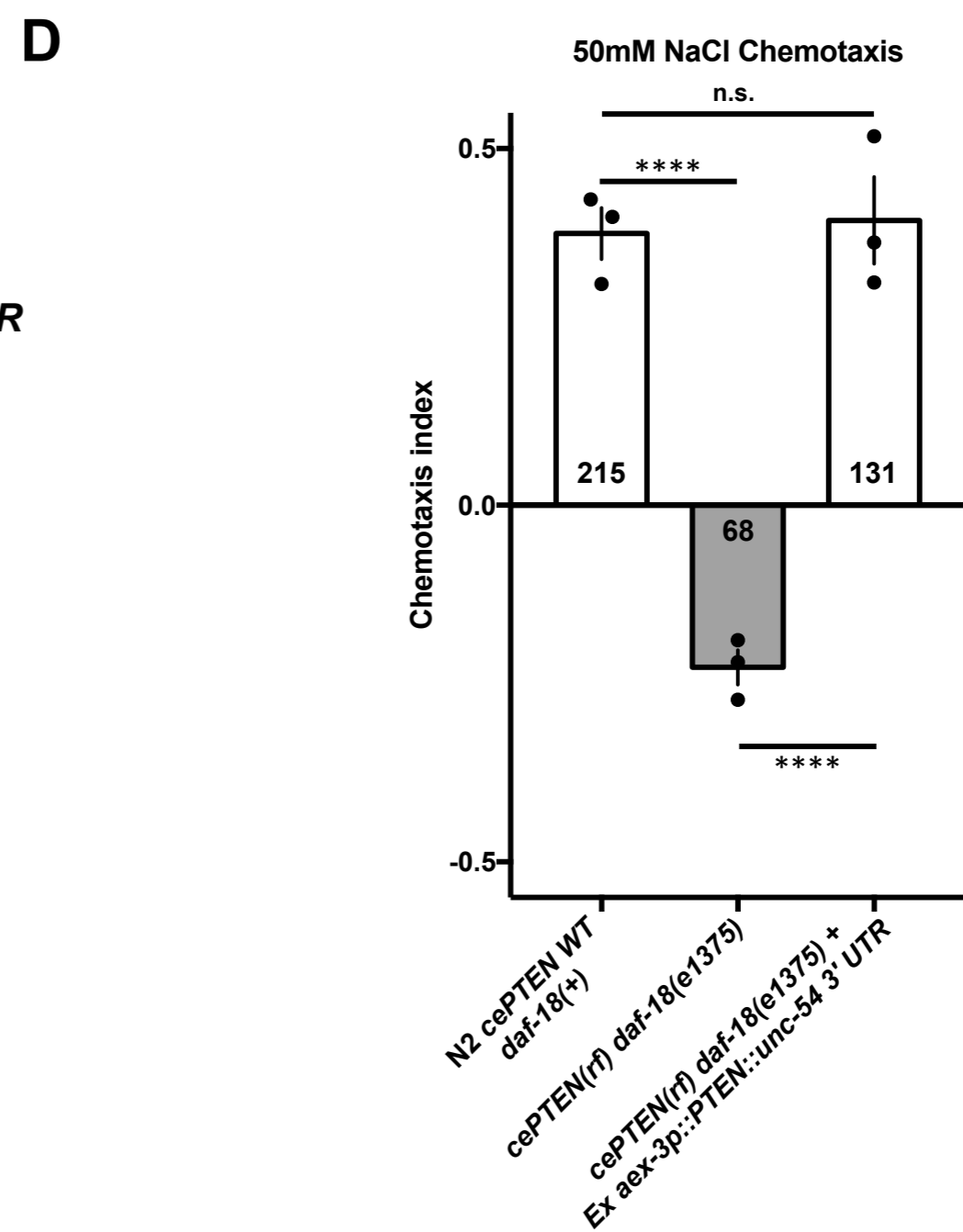
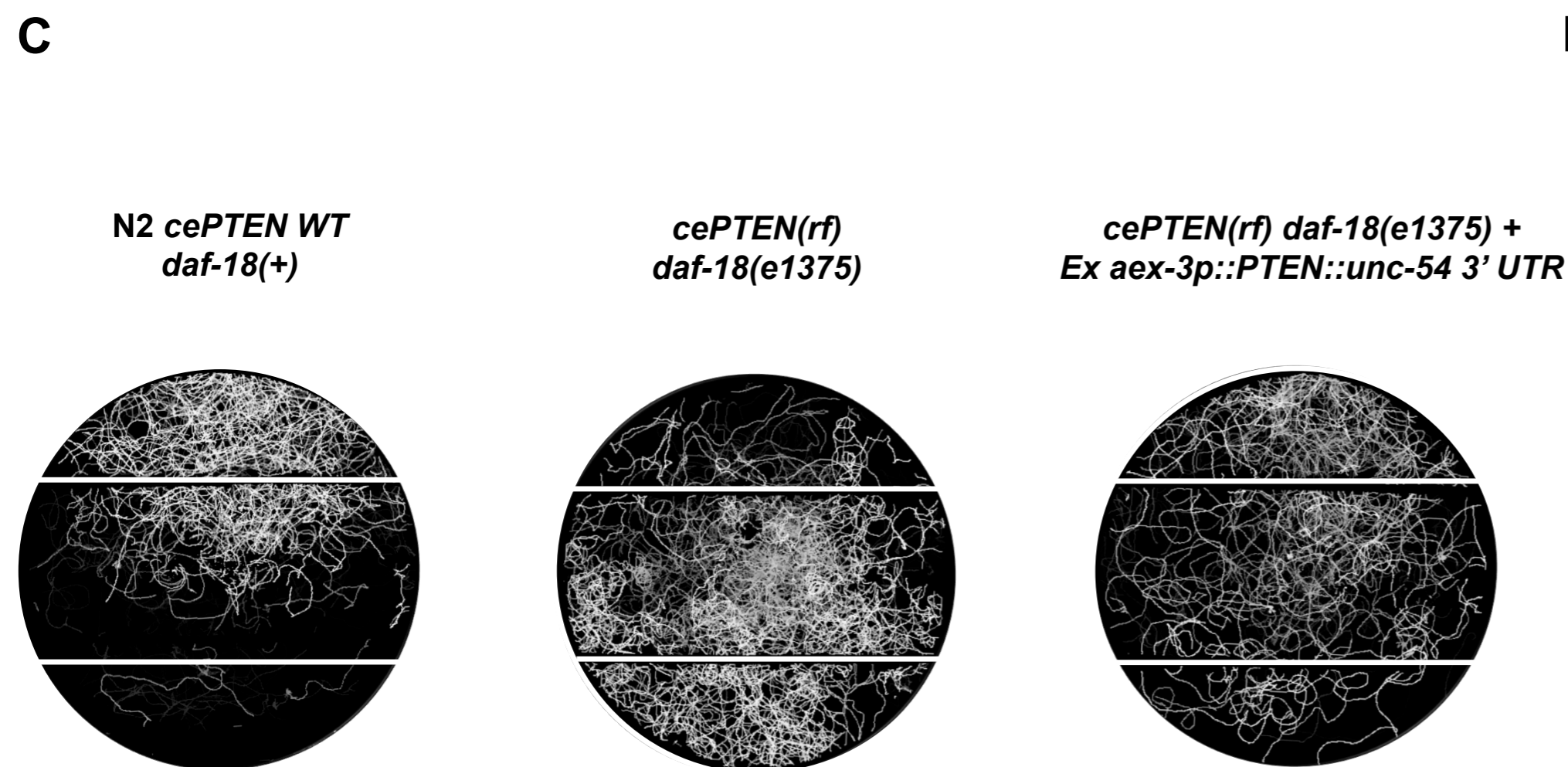
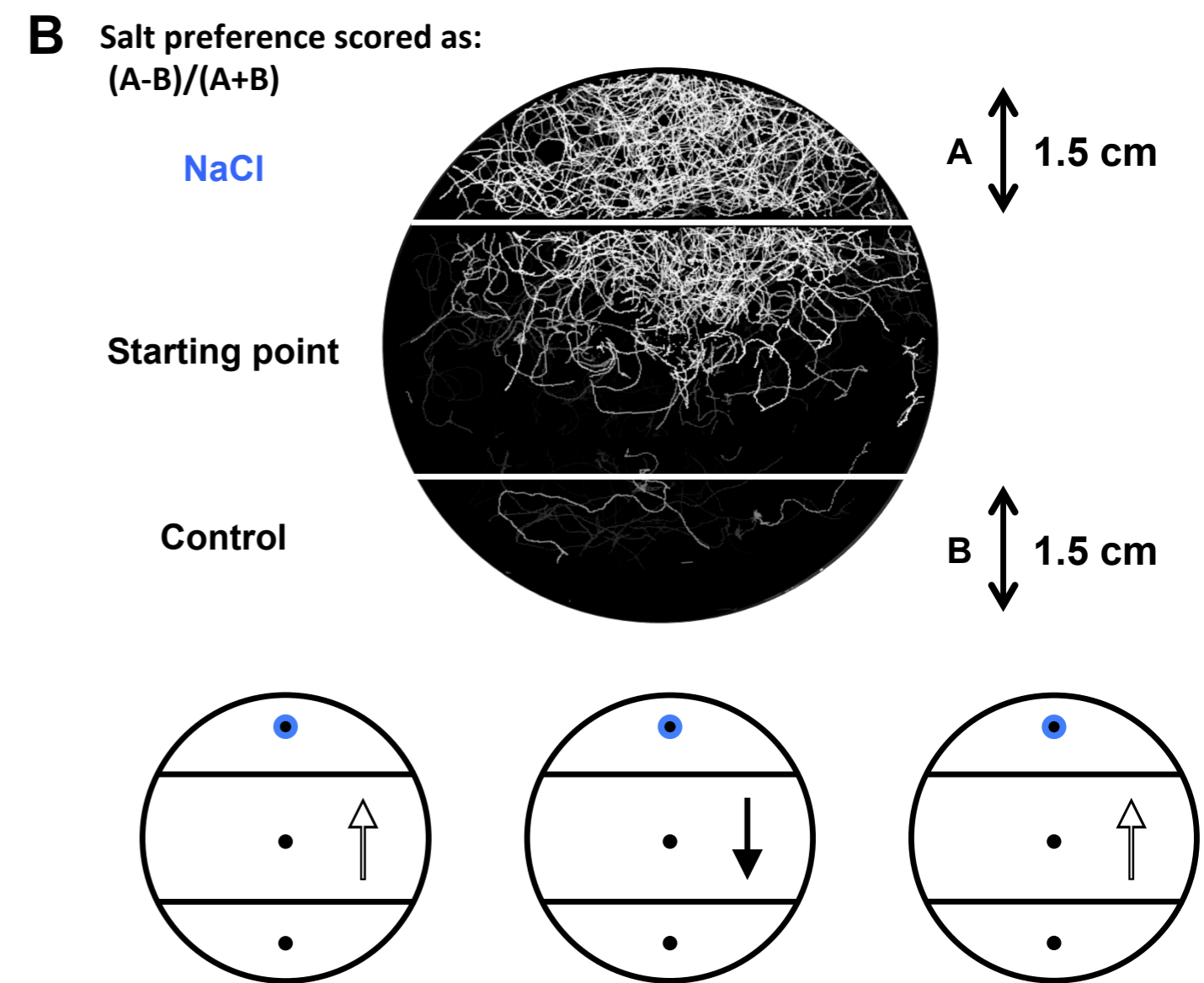
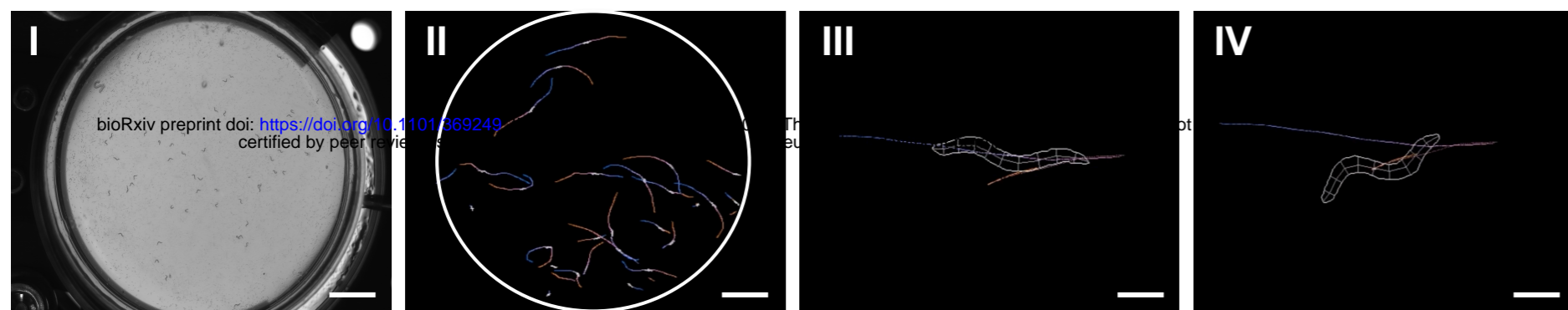
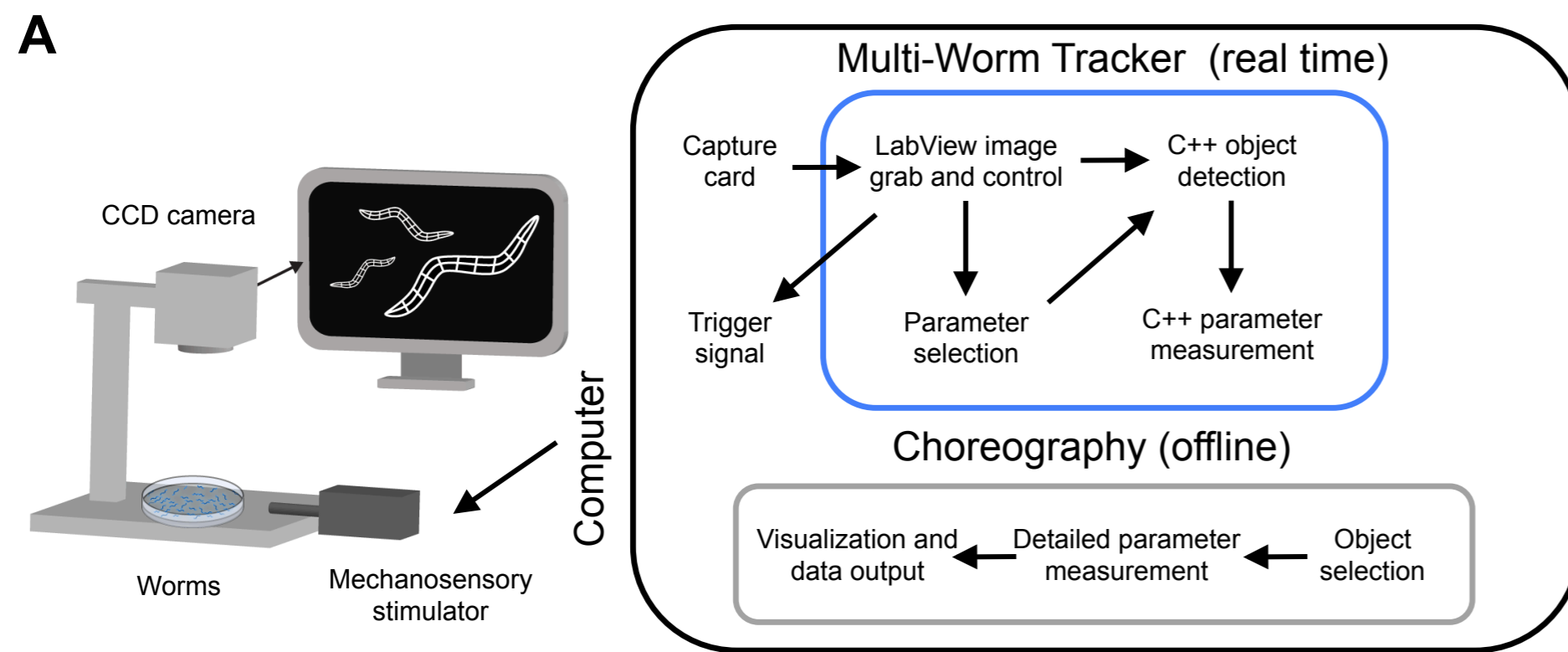
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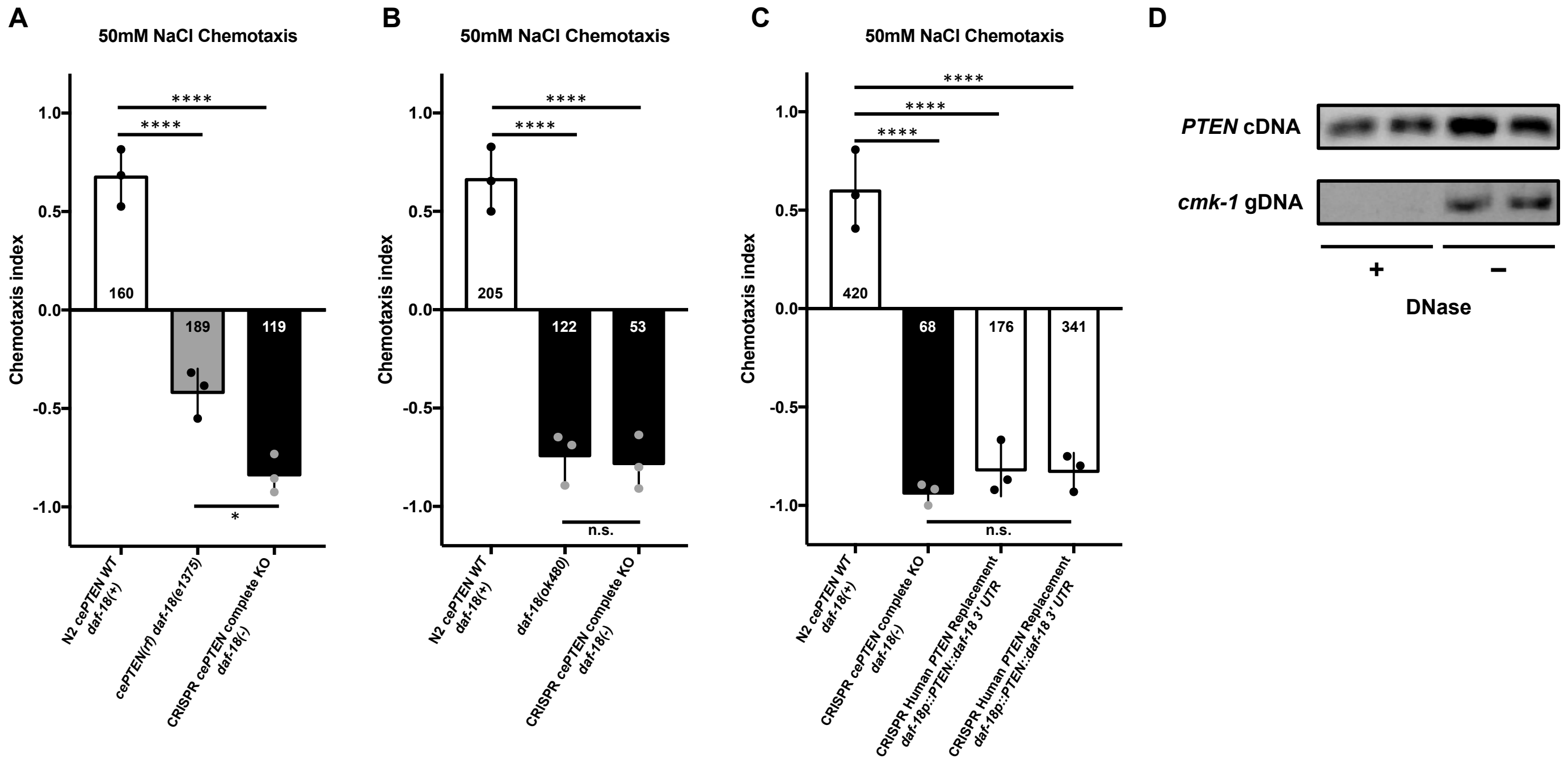


**Figure 1 | A general strategy for direct single copy replacement of *C. elegans* genes with human genes at the orthologs native genomic loci. A) A schematic of the genome editing strategy. (top left) A sgRNA targets Cas9 to induce a DNA double strand break immediately downstream of the orthologs start codon. A co-injected repair template containing ~500BP homology arms targeted to the regions immediately upstream and downstream of the ortholog ORF serve as a substrate for homology directed repair. By fusing the CDS of a human gene of interest to the upstream homology arm homology directed repair integrates the human gene in place of the ortholog at a single copy in frame. A co-integrated Dual-Marker selection cassette consisting of an antibiotic resistance gene (*Prps-27::neoR::unc-54 UTR*) and a fluorescent marker (*Pmyo-2::GFP::unc-54 UTR*) greatly facilitates the identification transgenic animals without inducing morphological or phenotypic abnormalities. (middle left) initial integration deletes the entire open reading frame of the *C. elegans* ortholog while separating the human gene from the orthologs transcriptional terminator to inhibit expression, creating an ortholog deletion allele for phenotypic analysis (Note: cassette is not shown to scale for most human gene CDS). (bottom left) Subsequent injection of Cre Recombinase excises the selection cassette and connects the human gene to the orthologous transcriptional termination sequence such that a single copy of the human gene will now be expressed under the control of all of the orthologs 5' and 3' cis- and trans-regulatory machinery. Validation of the desired edit is performed using standard amplification and Sanger sequencing of the target region (primer binding locations represented by half arrows in the schematic). For analysis of a human gene variant of uncertain significance (VUS) the variant of interest is incorporated into the HDR plasmid using standard *in vitro* methods such as site-directed mutagenesis and the same genome editing process is repeated using the same validated sgRNA and homology arms. B) Human gene replacement allows for straight-forward interpretation of variant functional effect. This process allows for: 1) initial generation and phenotypic analysis of a complete null allele in the *C. elegans* orthologous gene 2) Direct integration of the human gene to determine if the human gene can compensate for loss of the orthologous gene, measuring functional conservation, 3) structure-function analysis of the effects of variants of uncertain significance on WT gene function. C) This strategy allows for straightforward assessment of heterozygous alleles using standard genetic crosses.**



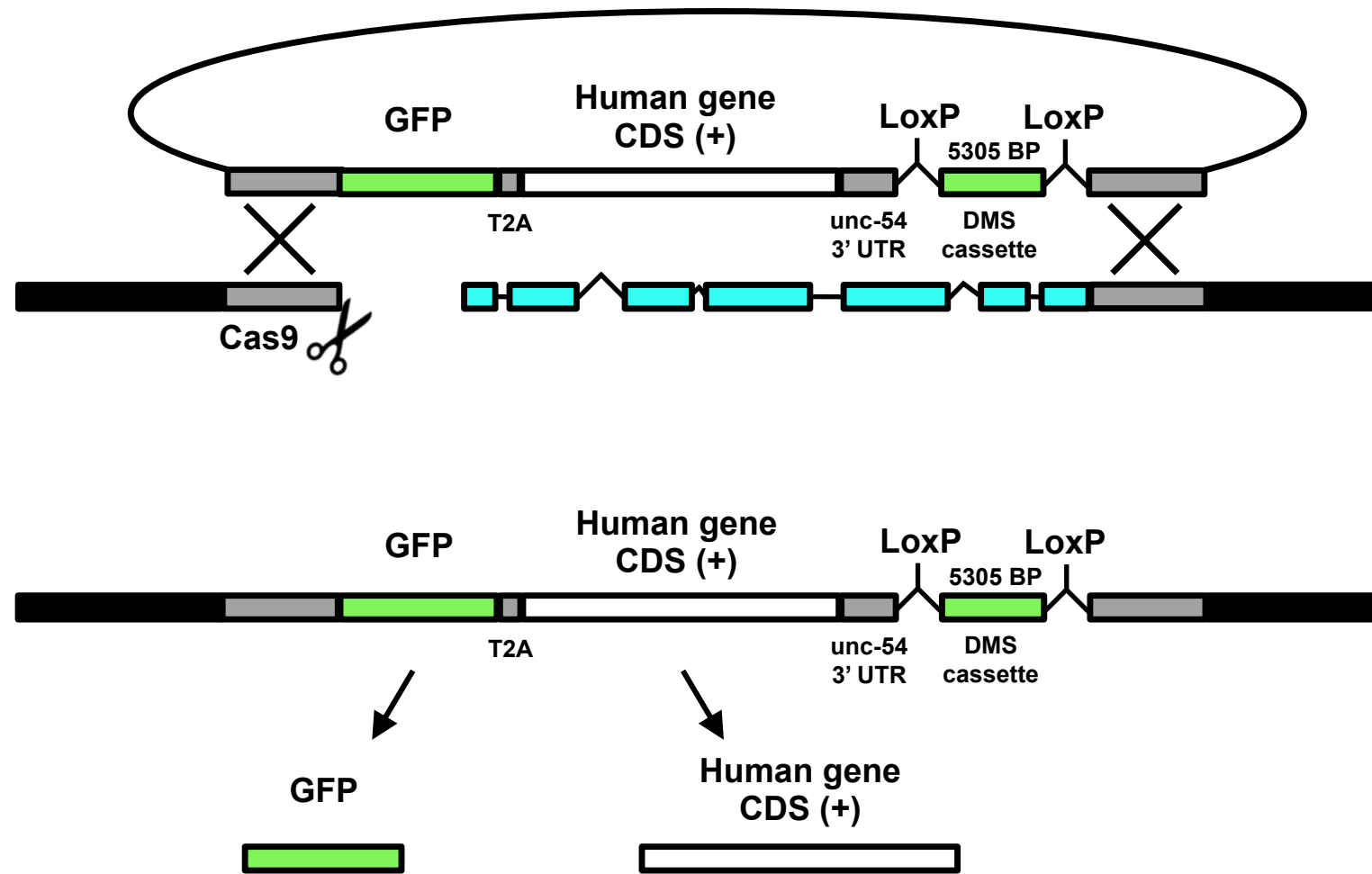
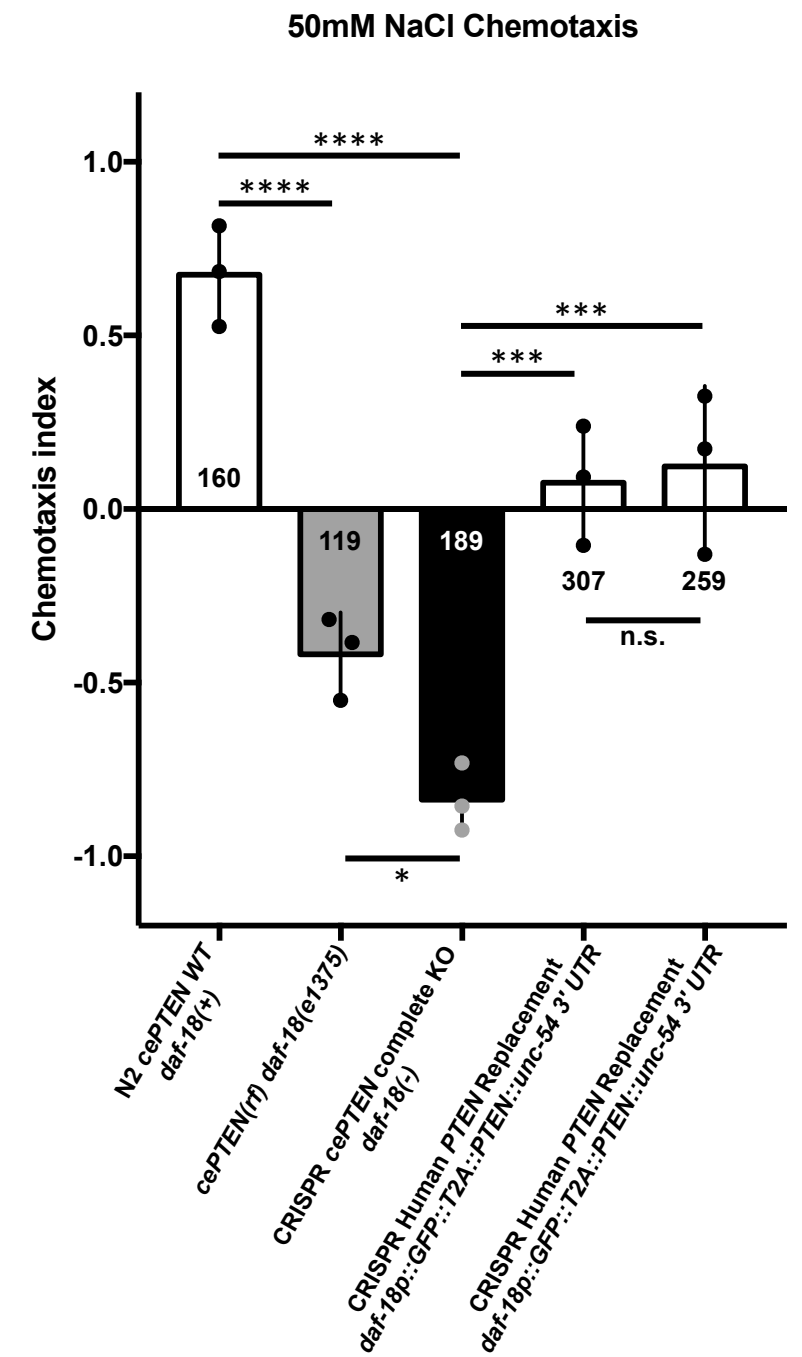


**Figure 3 | A conserved neuronal role for *PTEN* in NaCl preference revealed by a novel automated chemotaxis paradigm.** **A**) (top) All phenotypic analysis is conducted using our machine vision system the Multi-Worm Tracker. The Multi-Worm Tracker delivers stimuli and performs image acquisition, object selection, and parameter selection in real time while choreography software extracts detailed phenotypic information offline (A bottom panels) I) petri plate of *C. elegans* II) A petri plate of *C. elegans* selected for analysis by the Multi-Worm Tracker III) A Multi-worm tracker digital representation showing the degree of phenotypic detail. An example behaviour scored by the Multi-Worm Tracker: the *C. elegans* response to a mechanosensory tap to the side of the Petri plate is brief backwards locomotion (from III to IV). **B**) Behavioural track tracing of a plate of worms from a novel Automated Multi-Worm Tracker NaCl chemotaxis paradigm illustrating attractive navigation behaviour of wild-type animals toward a point source of NaCl. **B**) (bottom left to right) circles and arrows and **C**) (left to right) worm tracks represent navigation trajectories of wild-type attraction to a point source of NaCl, a *daf-18(e1375)* reduction-of-function decrease in NaCl chemotaxis, and a transgenic rescue of NaCl preference via pan neuronal overexpression of WT human *PTEN* in *daf-18(e1375)* reduction of function mutants. **D**) Quantitative chemotaxis index scores across genotypes. Pan neuronal expression of human *PTEN* rescues the reversed NaCl preference of *daf-18(e1375)* mutants to wild-type levels. Circles represent plate replicates run on the same day and inset number represent the number of individual animals registered by the tracker and located outside the center starting region (i.e. included in preference score) across the three plate replicates for each genotype. Error bars represent standard deviation using the number of plates as n (n = 3). (\*\*\*\*) P < 0.0001, n.s. not significant, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test.

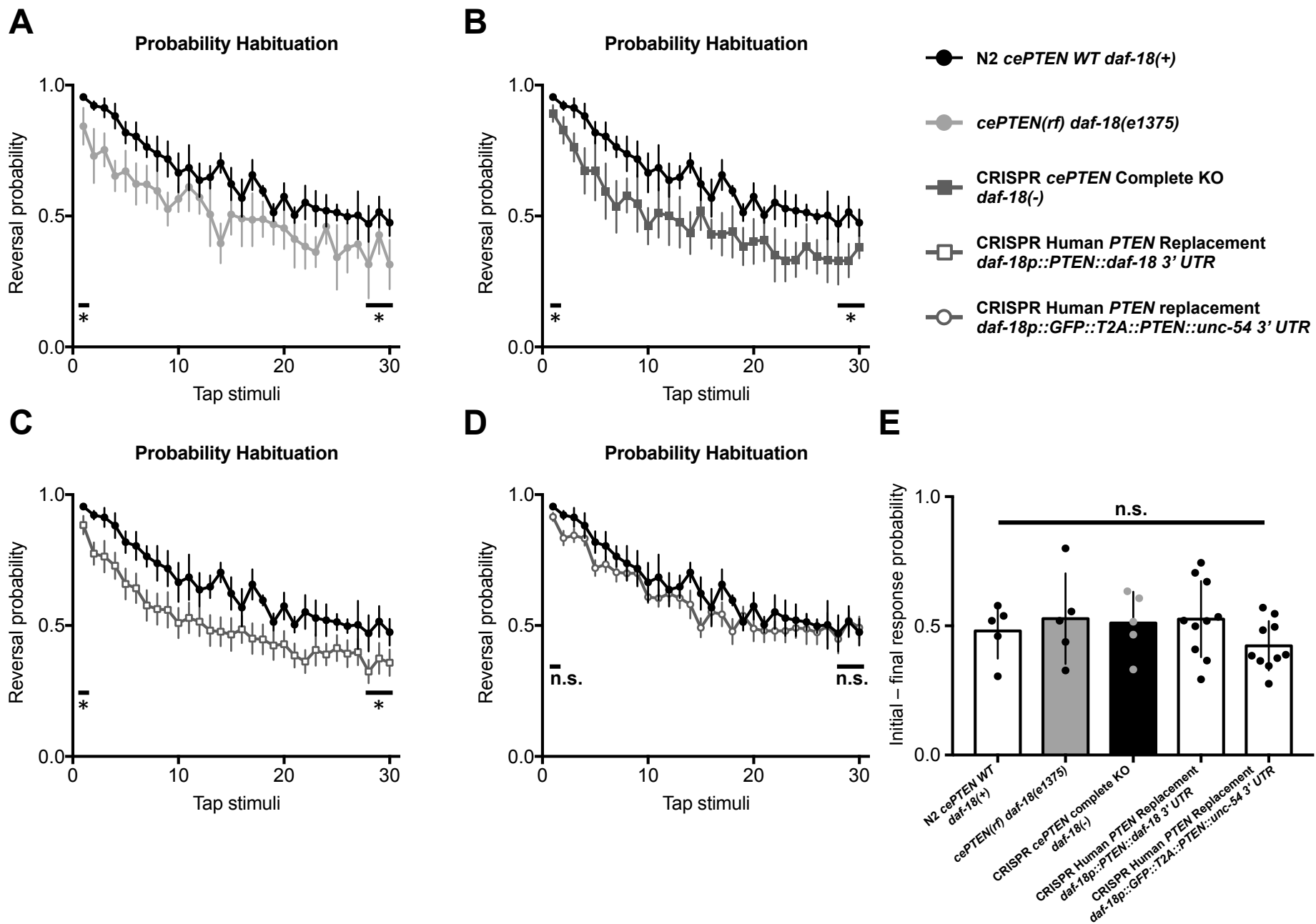


**Figure 4 | Complete *daf-18* ORF deletion causes strong NaCl avoidance that is not rescued by direct replacement with human *PTEN*.** **A)** NaCl chemotaxis preference scores of wild-type, *daf-18(e1375)* reduction of function, and CRISPR *daf-18* complete deletion mutants. *daf-18* complete deletion mutants show significantly stronger NaCl avoidance than *daf-18(e1375)* reduction of function mutants. **B)** CRISPR *daf-18* complete deletion mutants are not significantly different from animals harboring the putative null *daf-18(ok480)* deletion allele. **C)** Expression of a single copy *PTEN* transgene from the native *daf-18* locus is insufficient to significantly rescue NaCl chemotaxis towards wild-type levels. **D)** RT-PCR confirming expression of full length *PTEN* mRNA in the two independent knock-in lines used for behavioural analysis. Previously validated primers that target *cmk-1* intronic regions of genomic DNA do not produce products following DNase treatment, confirming purity of the cDNA. Circles represent plate replicates run on the same day and inset number represent the number of individual animals registered by the tracker and located outside the center starting region (i.e. included in preference score) across the three plate replicates for each genotype. Error bars represent standard deviation using the number of plates as n (n = 3). (\*\*\*\*) P < 0.0001, (\*) P < 0.05 n.s. not significant, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test.

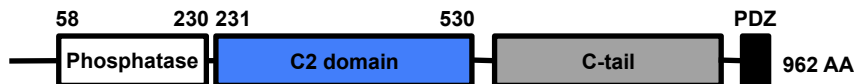
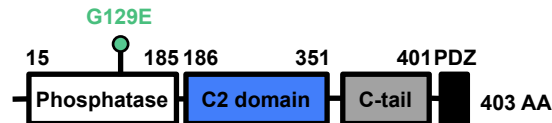


**A****B**

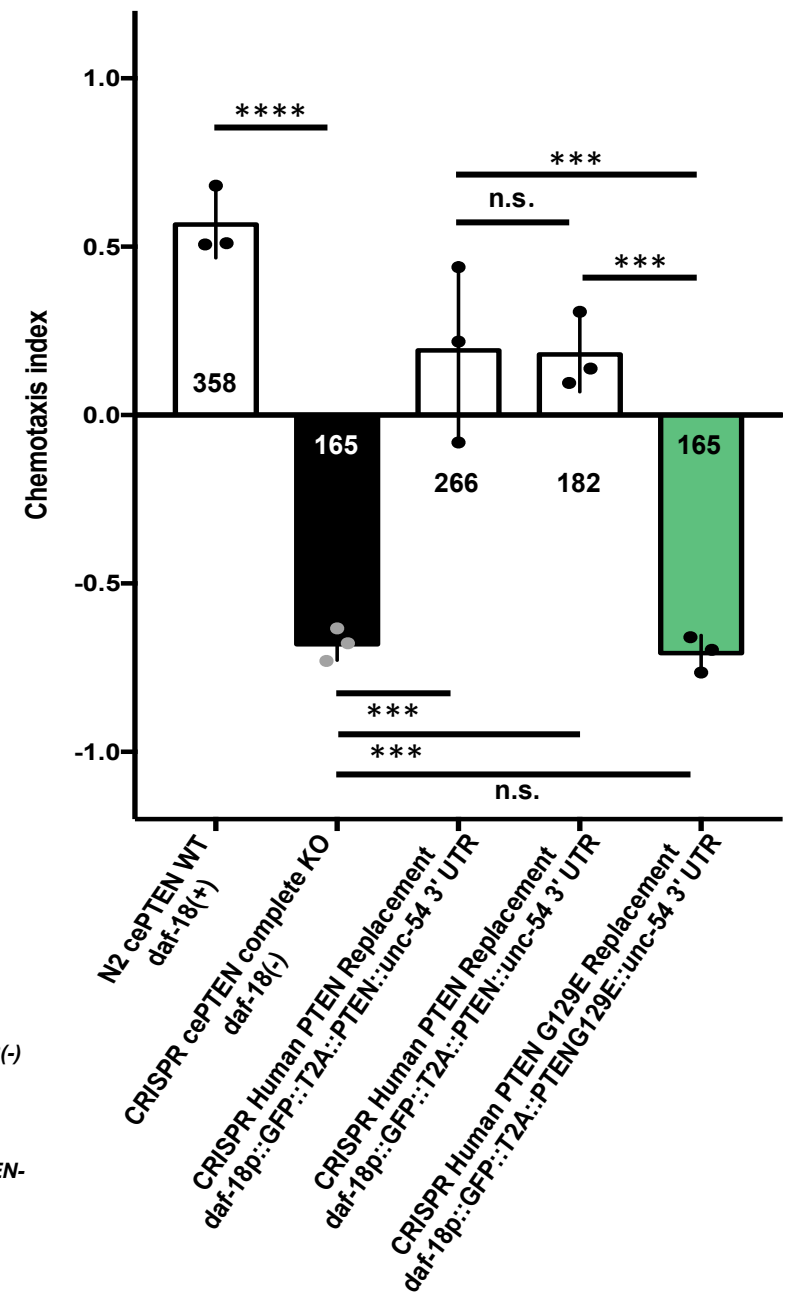
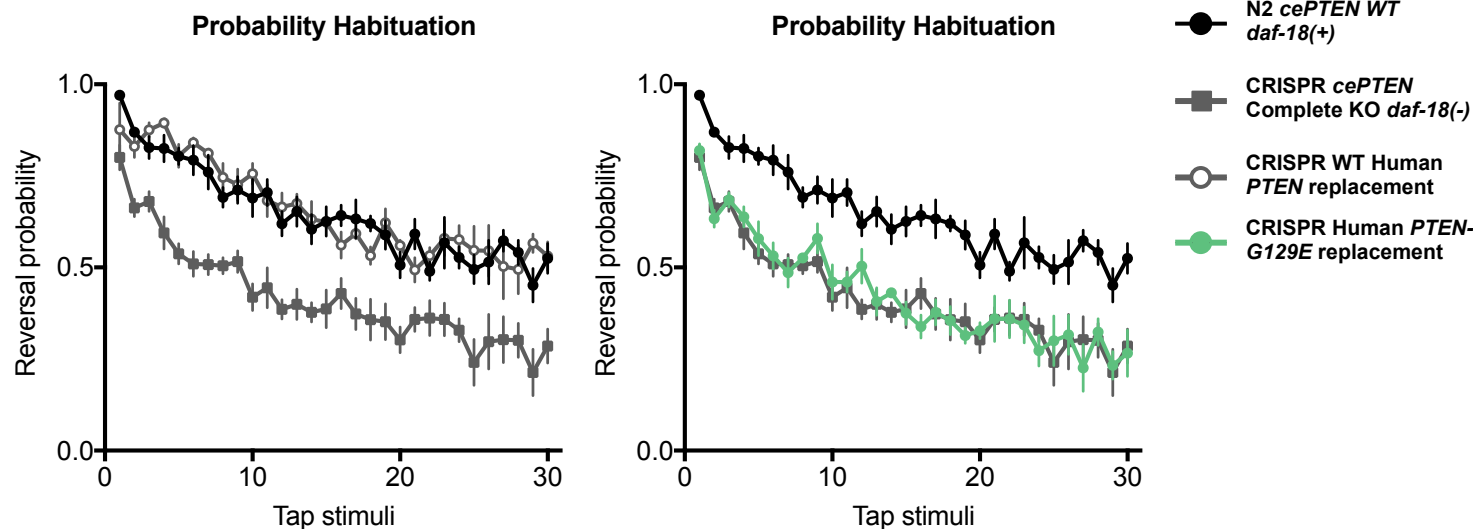
**Figure 5 | A streamlined human gene replacement strategy functionally replaces *daf-18* with human *PTEN*.** **A)** Streamlined CRISPR gene replacement strategy. Inclusion of the validated *unc-54* 3' UTR in the upstream homology arm increases the speed of transgenesis by removing the need for cassette excision to induce transgene expression. This alternate approach also offers the option for retained visual transgenic markers, which simplifies the generation and phenotypic analysis of heterozygotes and double mutants. The inclusion of a GFP::T2A cassette is an optional addition to allow for confirmation of transgene expression without altering human gene function (Ahier and Jarriault, 2014). **B)** Expression of wild-type human *PTEN* using this genome editing strategy significantly rescued NaCl chemotaxis toward wild-type levels. Circles represent plate replicates run on the same day and inset number represent the number of individual animals registered by the tracker and located outside the center starting region (i.e. included in preference score) across the three plate replicates for each genotype. Error bars represent standard deviation using the number of plates as n (n = 3). (\*\*\*\*) P < 0.0001, (\*\*\*) P < 0.001, (\*) P < 0.05, n.s. not significant, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test.



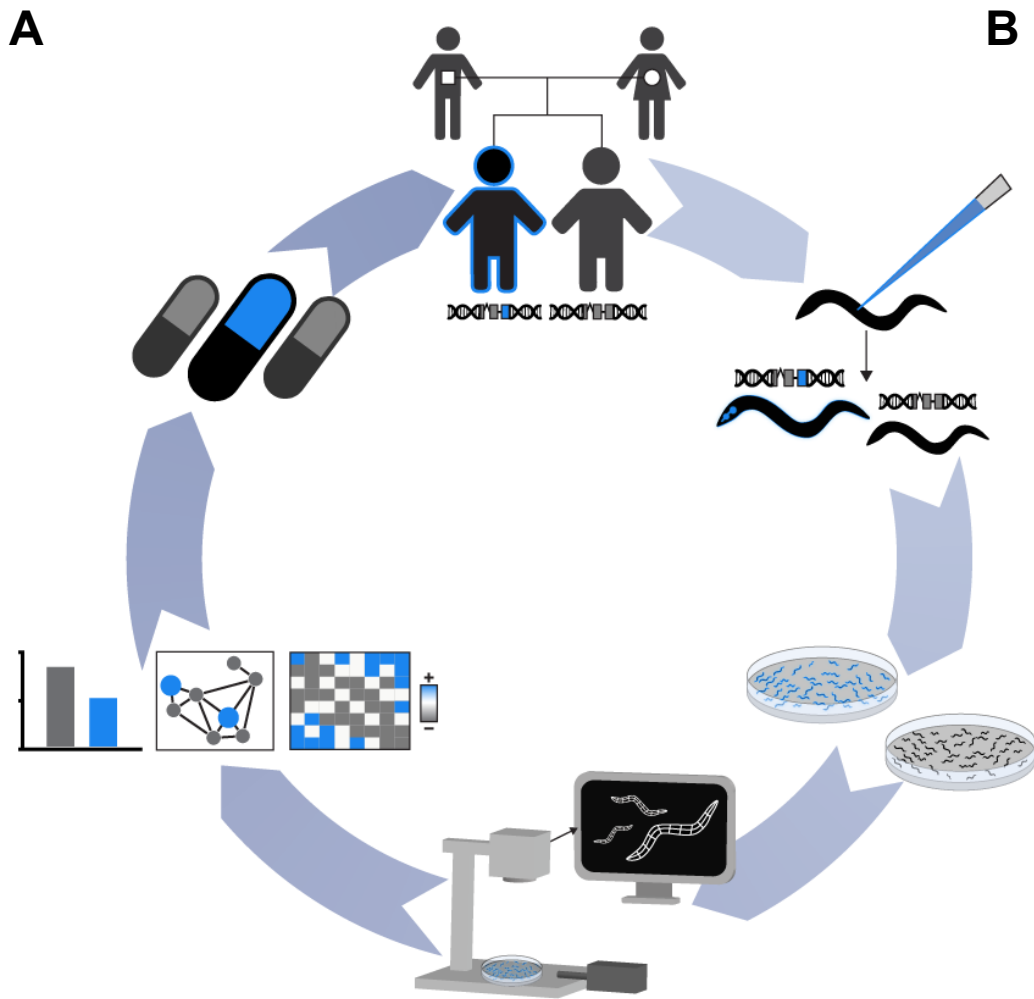
**Figure 6 | *daf-18* deletion causes mechanosensory hyporesponsivity that is rescued by targeted replacement with human *PTEN*.** **A-D)** Average probability of eliciting a reversal response to 30 consecutive tap stimuli delivered at a 10s ISI. **A)** *daf-18(e1375)* reduction of function and **B)** *daf-18* complete deletion mutants exhibit significantly reduced probability of eliciting a reversal response throughout the habituation training session, indicating mechanosensory hyporesponsivity. **C)** Replacement of *daf-18* with human *PTEN* using the original strategy does not rescue mechanosensory hyporesponsivity. **D)** Expression of human *PTEN* using the streamlined replacement strategy rescues mechanosensory responding to wild-type levels. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. **E)** Habituation, or the ability to learn to decrease the probability of eliciting of a reversal response throughout the training session was not significantly altered in *daf-18* mutants. Circles represent plate replicates run on the same day. Error bars represent standard deviation of the mean using the number of plates as n (n = 5 or 10). (\*) P < 0.05 n.s. not significant, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test.

**A****DAF-18****PTEN**

DAF-18 *C. Elegans* HCKAGKGR**T**GVM**I**  
 PTEN *H. Sapiens* HCKAGKGR**T**GVM**I**  
 PTEN G129E

**B****50mM NaCl Chemotaxis****C**

**Figure 7 | Human gene replacement and *in vivo* phenotypic assessment accurately identifies functional consequences of the pathogenic PTEN-G129E variant. A)** Location (top) and conserved amino acid sequence change (bottom) of the pathogenic lipid phosphatase inactive PTEN-G129E variant within the PTEN phosphatase domain. **B)** Animals harboring the PTEN G129E variant displayed strong NaCl avoidance equivalent to animals carrying the complete *daf-18* deletion allele, indicating loss-of-function (Fig. 7B). Circles represent plate replicates run on the same day and inset number represent the number of individual animals registered by the tracker and located outside the center starting region (i.e. included in preference score) across the three plate replicates for each genotype. Error bars represent standard deviation using the number of plates as n (n = 3). **C)** Similarly, PTEN-G129E mutants also displayed mechanosensory hyporesponsivity that was not significantly different from *daf-18* deletion mutants. Error bars represent standard error of the mean. (\*\*\*\*) P < 0.0001, (\*\*\*) P < 0.001, (\*) P < 0.05, n.s. not significant, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test.



### Advantages

- Rapid and precise gene manipulation and phenotypic assessment
- Cell specific manipulation to determine origin of pathology
- Inducible manipulation to determine critical time
- Dissection of molecular pathways

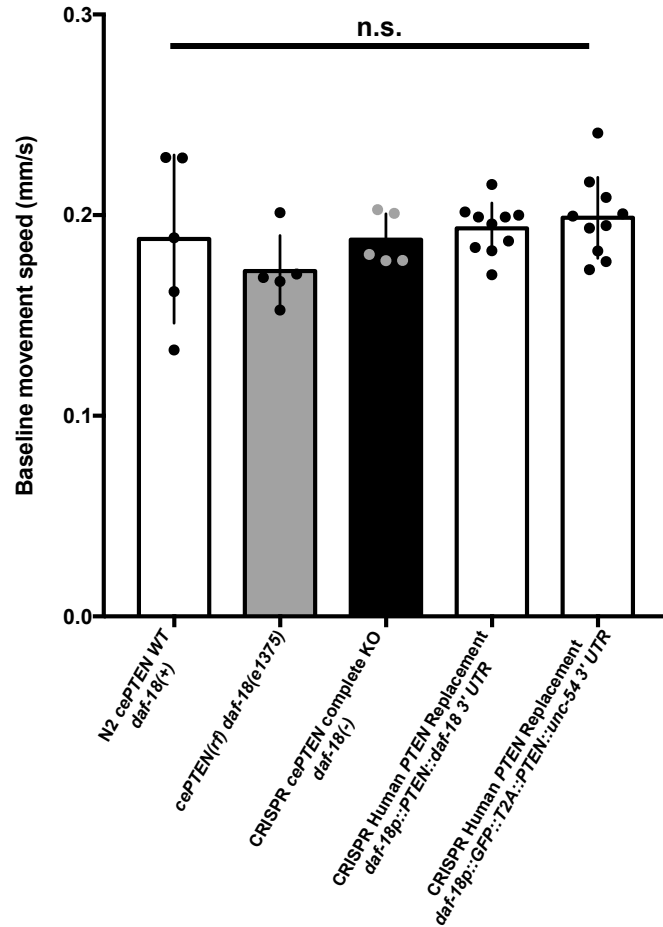
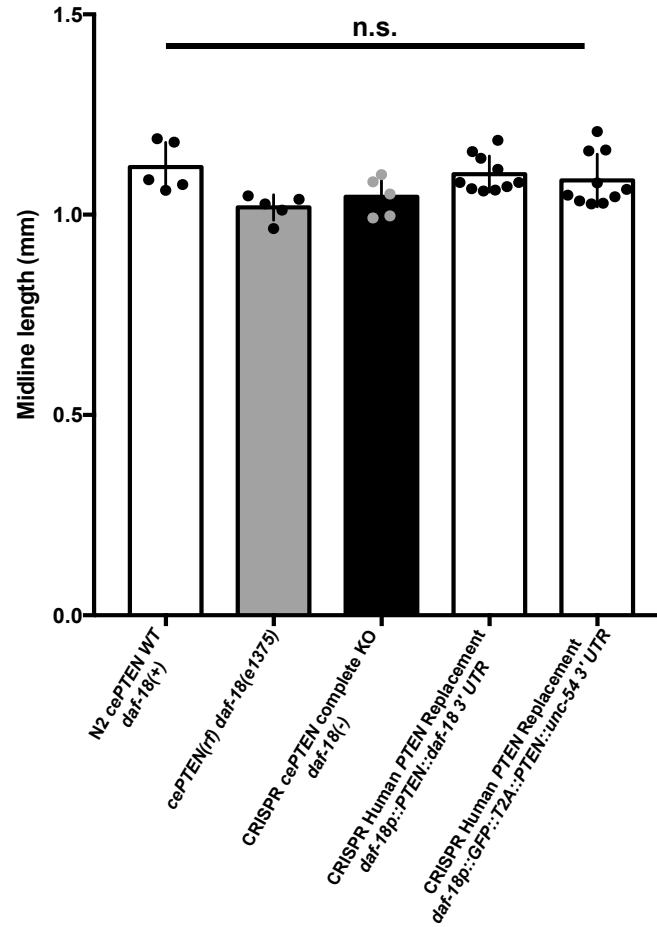
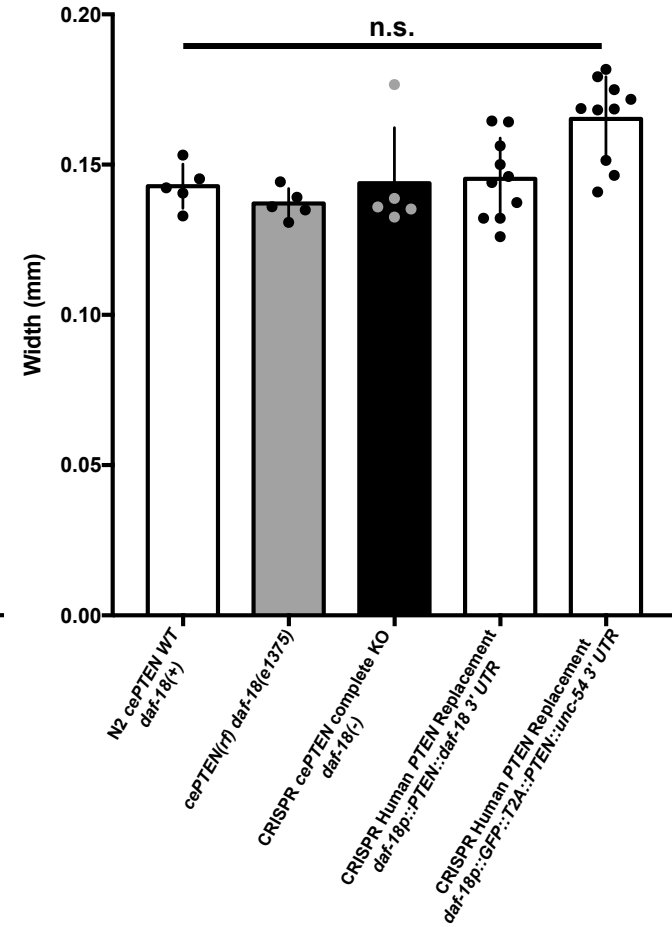
### Fundamental Knowledge

- Gene function
- Molecular networks
- Mechanisms of neural and behavioural plasticity
- Genetic networks

### Translational Benefits

- Insights into disease pathology
- Understanding clinical variability
- Targets for therapeutics

**Figure 8 | A conceptual framework for *in vivo* functional analysis of human genetic variation using *C. elegans*.** **A)** (top working clockwise) A human gene and/or variant of uncertain significance is implicated in disease etiology through clinical sequencing. Targeted CRISPR human gene replacement or analogous methods are used to generate a library of knock-out, human wild-type and variant transgenic strains. Large isogenic synchronous colonies of these transgenic worms are grown and their morphology, baseline locomotion, and sensory phenotypes are rapidly characterized using machine vision to establish novel functional assays and interpret variant effects. *In vivo* functional data can be used to probe epistatic network disruptions and cluster variants based on multi-parametric phenotypic profiles. The integrated humanized transgenic lines and functional assays greatly facilitate downstream applications including precision medicine drug screens designed to identify compounds that reverse the effects of a particular patients missense variant. **B)** Advantages of targeted human gene replacement using *C. elegans*.

**A****Baseline Movement Speed****B****Midline Length****C****Width**

**Figure S1 | Morphology and baseline locomotion are superficially normal in *daf-18* mutants and *PTEN* transgenic animals. A)** Baseline movement speed, **B)** midline length, and **C)** width are not significantly different across genotypes. Circles represent plate replicates run on the same day. Error bars represent standard deviation using the number of plates as n (n = 5 or 10). n.s. not significant, one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test.