

***Partial replication of “Coadaption of the chemosensory system with voluntary exercise behavior in mice” (Nguyen et al., 2020)***

## **Introduction**

Olfaction prompts various animal behaviors [1]. The vomeronasal organ (VNO), found in the olfactory systems of amphibians, scaled reptiles, and some mammals, detects environmental pheromones and drives physiological and behavioral changes accordingly [2]. The VNO also evolves rapidly and exhibits significant geno- and phenotypical variation across populations, even when inbred [3-19]. In “Coadaptation of the chemosensory system with voluntary exercise behavior in mice” (2020), Nguyen et al. hypothesize that if a species were selectively bred for a behavior driven by the VNO, one would expect to see coadaptive changes in the genes of and gene expression within the organ [20].

Voluntary wheel running (VWR) behavior has been widely studied in mice [21-23], and, beginning at the University of Wisconsin-Madison in 1993 (and transferred to University of California, Riverside in 2001), there has been an ongoing artificial selection experiment in which mice have been bred for high VWR. In one experiment on these mice, researchers noted VWR tended higher when the urine of other mice, which contains pheromones, was present [24]. In another, mice were shown to exhibit more VWR on wheels already used by other mice when compared to clean ones [25]. Nguyen et al. therefore thought laboratory mice might be reasonable candidates on which to test their hypothesis.

Physical exercise is an important part of a healthy lifestyle for humans. However, many people find it hard to motivate themselves to engage in regular physical activity, especially as modern conveniences make it easier to lead a sedentary lifestyle. Though humans do not have vomeronasal organs, research exploring the connection between voluntary activity and the olfactory system in general could uncover new technologies and strategies to promote and facilitate exercise among those looking to be more active.

## **Replicated Results**

We have focused on replicating one of the three major areas of work within Nguyen et al.’s paper: analysis of differential gene expression within the VNO between High Runner (HR) and Control lines. The specific results we sought to replicate are as follow:

- Identification of 132 differentially expressed genes in the HR versus Control group, 19 being vomeronasal receptor genes
- No significant difference in expression of the olfactory marker protein (OMP) gene
- No significant differential expression by sex within HR and Control groups

## Data

The data for this paper came from the 88<sup>th</sup> generation of 8 genetic lines of Hsd:ICR mice. 4 lines were selectively bred for high VWR behavior, while the other 4 were bred randomly to serve as controls. The decision to have multiple lines within each group was made to minimize the influence of genetic drift.

At the time of subject selection, mice from HR lines performed approximately 3x as many wheel rotations per day as those from controls, a difference which had plateaued, depending on the HR line, between generations 17 and 27.

For RNA sequencing analysis, VNO samples were taken from 6 mice, 3 female and 3 male, from each of the 8 lines (48 mice in total). For each line-sex triad, tissue was pooled, and total RNA samples were taken, measured for integrity, and rid of ribosomal RNA. RNA sequences were then processed.

## Methods

For gene expression analysis, the authors used Cuffdiff, an algorithm within Cufflinks from the Tuxedo Suite of RNA-Seq analysis tools, to test for significance in the difference in read counts. Cuffdiff uses the negative binomial distribution to test for differential expression. Additionally, to account for false positive rate, the authors used the Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery correction.

Since Cuffdiff requires generated BAM files, which the authors have not made available and which are difficult to reverse engineer from the .txt files they did, we decided to perform our replication using DESeq2, an R package that is part of the Bioconductor project. DESeq2 also uses the negative binomial distribution for its differential expression analysis, so we thought it should make for a good comparison.

To compare gene expression across lines and sex, the authors used a two-way ANOVA test to see whether the normalized read count means were affected by these two variables. We replicate this analysis, once again, via the DESeq2 package by adding sex into our model as an additional factor.

## Results

We performed quality control on the data before running differential expression analysis. We first removed 27 genes due to their names having been inadvertently converted to date format (with a few duplicates, making it hard to convert them back). We then performed a principal component analysis on the data for all 16 line-sex samples and removed sample *Cont\_F4*, the female portion of one of the control lines, due to its outlier nature [Figure 1]. After these adjustments, we were left with 15 line-sex samples and 24,411 genes. Lastly, we added a binary variable to account for the batch effect contributed by samples *Runner1* and *HR\_F3*, the male and female subsamples of the first HR line. Doing so resulted in what looked to be uniform distribution of p-values for null results.

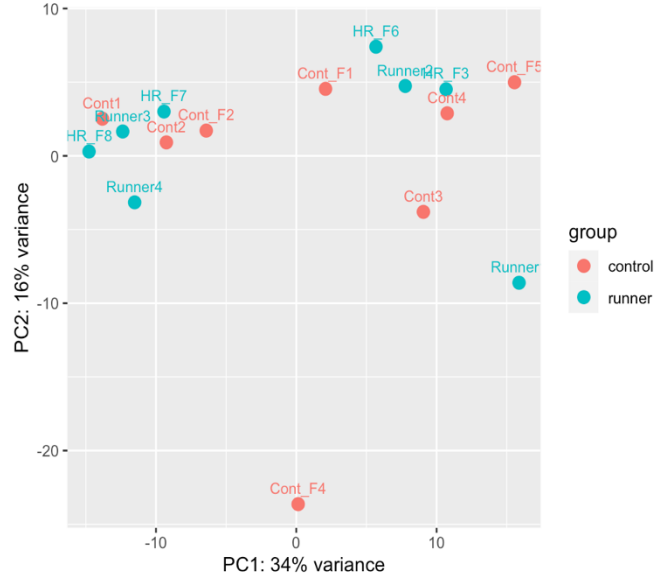


Figure 1. Results of a PCA analysis of all 16 line-sex samples.

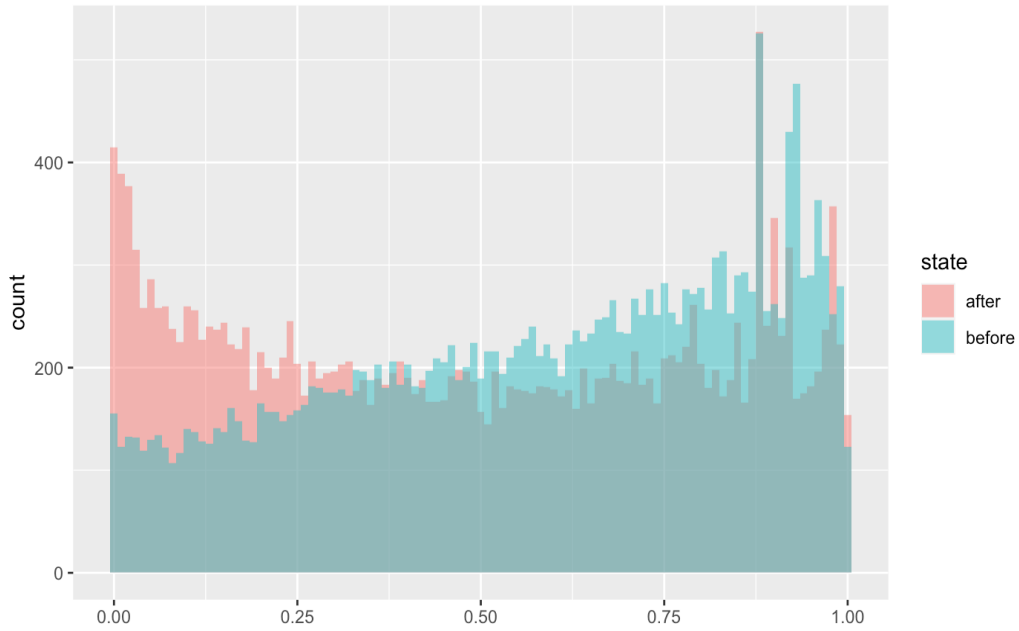


Figure 2. Comparative histograms of p-values before and after accounting for batch effects in Runner1 and HR\_F3 samples.

After these alterations, we then used a DESeq two-factor model (condition and batch) with a Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery correction and q-value threshold of 0.05, (the threshold used by the original authors) to identify 103 differentially expressed (DE) genes across the HR and Control lines. Of the 103 genes, 9 were vomeronasal receptor coding genes: *Vmn1r196*, *Vmn1r236*, *Vmn2r9*, *Vmn2r11*, *Vmn2r14*, *Vmn2r15*, *Vmn2r16*, *Vmn2r50*, and *Vmn2r99*. Of these, in the HR lines, 5 were significantly up-regulated compared to Controls (*Vmn1r196*, *Vmn2r9*, *Vmn2r11*, *Vmn2r14*, and *Vmn2r50*), and 4 were significantly down-regulated (*Vmn1r236*, *Vmn2r15*,

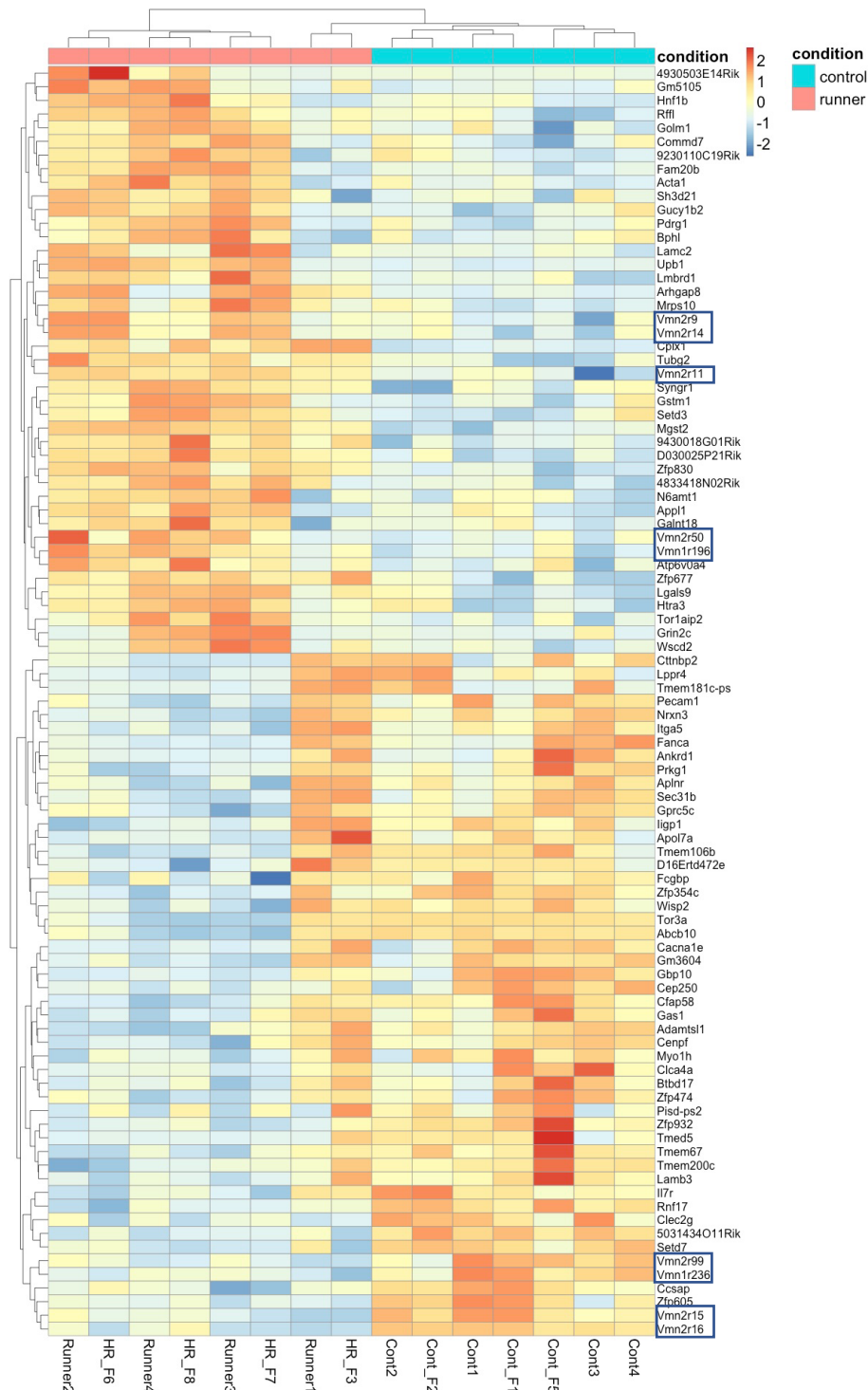


Figure 3. Heatmap of 93 differentially expressed genes between HR and Controls. Based on three-factor model including condition, sex, and batch variables. Vomeronasal receptor genes are marked with boxes.

*Vmn2r16*, and *Vmn2r99*). Across these genes,  $\log_2$  fold change ranged from -3.01 to 1.68, figures held by *Vmn2r16* and *Vmn2r9*, respectively.

A three-factor model including sex identified 93 DE genes [Figure 3], though all 9 vomeronasal receptor genes from the single-factor model remained classified as DE and with similar  $\log_2$  fold changes. A model based solely on sex and batch returned 196 DE genes, 3 of which coded for vomeronasal receptors (*Vmn1r26*, *Vmn2r117*, and *Vmn2r121*). However, none of these 3 overlapped with the genes differentially expressed by condition.

Compared to Nguyen et al., we found fewer DE genes (93 vs. 132) and DE vomeronasal receptor genes, both absolutely (9 vs. 19) and in proportion to total DE genes (9.7% vs. 14.4%). Across the DE vomeronasal receptor genes, the original authors found 2 in the *Vmn1r* family, 15 in the *Vmn2r* family, and 2 in the *Fpr* family, while we found 2 in the *Vmn1r* family, 7 in the *Vmn2r* family, and

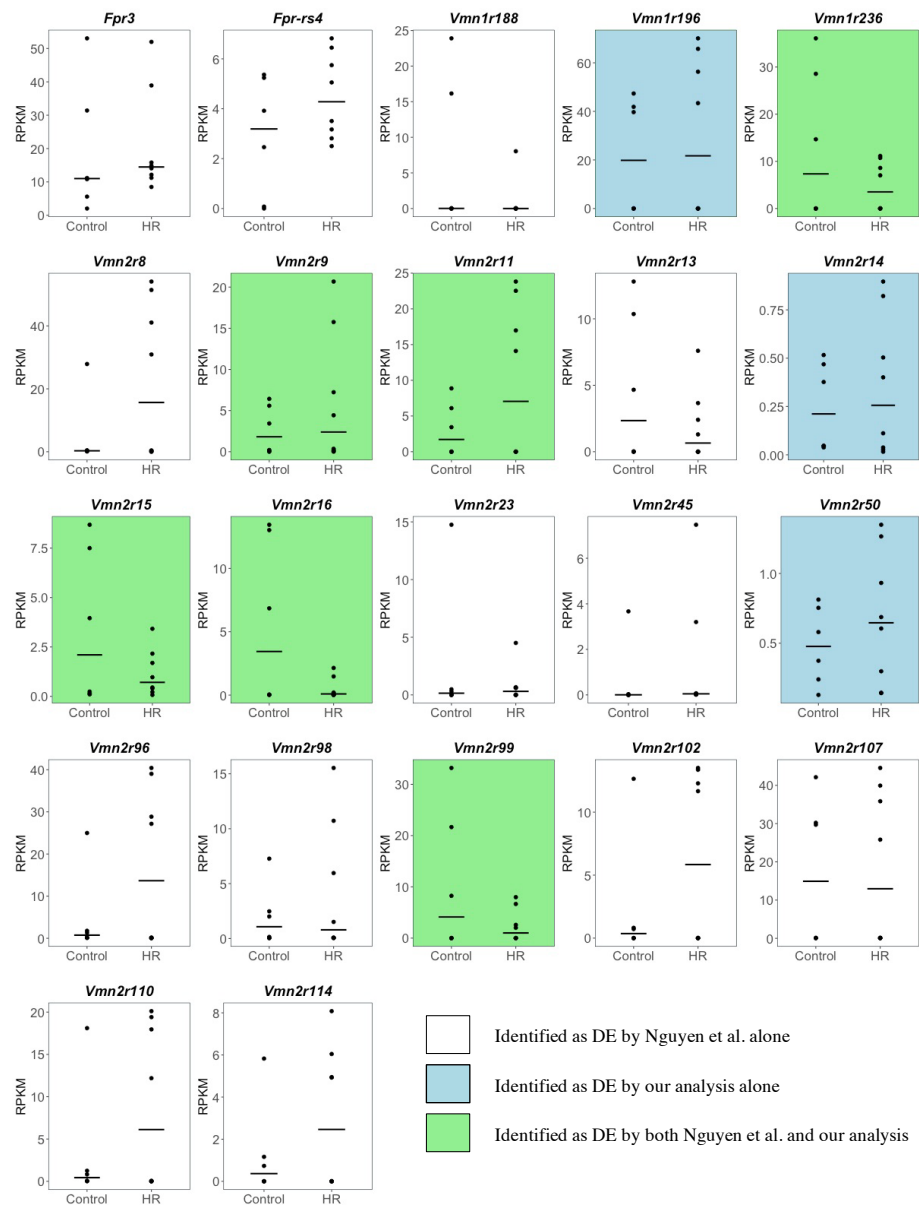


Figure 4. RPKM comparison of HR and Control lines for differentially expressed genes identified by Nguyen et al. (white), our analysis (blue), or both (green). Lines mark medians of each group.

0 in the *Fpr* family. Of the 9 DE vomeronasal receptor genes we identified, 6 were also identified by the original authors (all but *Vmn1r196*, *Vmn2r14*, and *Vmn2r50*) and with directionally the same up- or down-regulation when compared to Controls [Figure 4]. Also like the initial authors, we found no differential expression of the olfactory marker protein (OMP) gene, supporting their assertion that the vomeronasal receptor gene expression differences were not due to differences in number of vomeronasal sensory neurons.

Beyond the original authors' results, we also performed a functional enrichment analysis on the DE genes identified using our three-factor model [Figure 5]. As one might expect, genes coding for G protein-coupled receptor activity, a category including all the vomeronasal receptor genes we have discussed, appeared as the most significantly overrepresented class of genes. In total, 11 out of a possible 743 genes in that category were identified as differentially expressed. This included the 9 receptor genes mentioned previously as well as *Aplnr* and *Gprc5c*.

term	over_represented_pvalue	numDEInCat	numInCat	padj
G protein-coupled receptor activity	0.000178404	11	743	1
laminin-5 complex	0.000180986	2	4	1
peptidyl-lysine monomethylation	0.000702044	2	9	1
histone-lysine N-methyltransferase activity	0.000821177	3	38	1
glutathione binding	0.001187668	2	17	1

Figure 5. Top five overrepresented gene categories according to functional enrichment analysis.

After correcting this analysis with a BH false discovery rate adjustment (with a q-value threshold of 0.05), however, no functional class of genes remained over- or underrepresented to a statistically significant level. In fact, q-values for every category equaled 1. This was a strange result, as it stands to reason that, even if vomeronasal receptors were not part of the mechanism responsible for higher VWR activity in mice, as Nguyen et al. hypothesize, one would expect the DE population of this class of genes to be overrepresented in the VNO, an organ whose most notable functions rely on them. The lack of significance, then, likely indicates that we have too little data for this sort of analysis, and not, instead, that the differential expression of vomeronasal receptor genes holds no signal.

## Conclusions and Further Work

We largely replicate the differential gene expression results of Nguyen et al., though to a more modest extent. It would not be surprising if, like the batch effect we discovered, there were additional idiosyncrasies to the data that the original authors were able to account for but went unmentioned in the paper. It is also plausible that some portion of the discrepancy arises from the genes and sample we removed from the analysis, as well as potential non-obvious differences between DESeq and Cuffdiff. That said, directionally, we came to the same conclusions, and, with more data, it appears we would be able to underscore the significance of differential expression of vomeronasal receptor genes within the HR mouse lines.

In terms of future work, continued research into a potential mechanism connecting the differentially expressed vomeronasal receptors and VWR in mice would go a long way toward confirming or refuting the link the original authors propose. Nguyen et al. mention a handful of papers showing that the chemosensory system (or VNO specifically) in mice prompts activity in

specific regions of their brains [26] and others that connect these regions to VWR behavior [27-31], but they do not list any that have been able to draw a more direct relationship. With further, more directed research, it is possible we could gain more insight into this potential connection and ultimately shed light on novel ways to promote physical exercise in humans.

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