

Singing is silver, hearing is gold: impacts of local FoxP1 knockdowns on auditory perception and gene expression in female zebra finches Heim, F.D.

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Chapter 4: Transcriptomic investigations of age- and region-specific knockdowns in female zebra finches identify potential downstream networks of FoxP1

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Abstract

FOXP1 is a highly conserved transcription factor that regulates the expression of target genes in diverse species. Evidence from multiple sources suggests that FOXP1 is important for aspects of brain development and function. For example, humans with rare heterozygous disruptions of *FOXP1* have been diagnosed with intellectual disability and/or autism spectrum disorder, as well as speech and language deficits. The avian ortholog, *FoxP1*, is highly expressed in a subset of song-related nuclei in the brains of songbirds, and prior studies have employed experimental knockdowns of this gene in Area X, HVC and CMM of male or female zebra finches, to investigate potential links to behaviour. In particular, in the work described in earlier parts of this thesis, female zebra finches were injected with lentiviral knockdown constructs in HVC or CMM during two different developmental stages. The present chapter sought to use tissue samples from the targeted brain areas in these birds to identify putative molecular targets and pathways that lie downstream of FoxP1, via a transcriptomic approach based on next-generation RNA-sequencing. Differentially expressed genes between control and knockdown groups were analysed across the different brain areas and the different developmental stages of genetic manipulations. With the exception of *FoxP1* itself, no individual gene showed significant differences in expression in all groups of this study. Nonetheless, data from the different groups on differentially expressed genes, enriched GO terms, gene sets and local networks together point to possible links of *FoxP1* to retinoic acid signaling or SLIT-ROBO pathways, among others. Moreover, differentially expressed genes associated with FoxP1 knockdown showed an overrepresentation of candidate loci involved in autism spectrum disorder and intellectual disability, based on analyses of independent databases that collated likely risk genes. The expression profiling data from this study can offer new insights into neurogenetic networks that may be regulated by FoxP1, suggesting hypotheses for future investigation in a range of species and model systems.

Introduction

Studies in multiple species indicate roles of the FOXP1 transcription factor in aspects of brain development and function. In humans, rare variants that disrupt FOXP1 result in a neurodevelopmental syndrome involving a range of features including intellectual disability, autism spectrum disorder, and impairments in speech and language (Sollis *et al.*, 2016; Siper *et al.*, 2017). Orthologues of *FOXP*1 have been identified in highly similar form in many different vertebrate and invertebrate species where they are thought to regulate the expression of downstream target genes in the brain and other tissue (Mazet *et al.*, 2003; Haesler *et al.*, 2004; Teramitsu *et al.*, 2004; Hannenhalli and Kaestner, 2009; Lawton *et al.*, 2014; Viscardi *et al.*, 2017). The high degree of homology has made it possible to investigate implications of FOXP1 dysfunction in animal models (Takahashi *et al.*, 2009; Scharff and Petri, 2011; Deriziotis and Fisher, 2017; Co *et al.*, 2020a), often with a focus on consequence for vocal behaviours (Fröhlich *et al.*, 2017; Norton *et al.*, 2019). For example, heterozygous deletions of *Foxp1* disrupt mouse vocalisations (Araujo *et al.*, 2015), and forebrain-specific knockouts of the gene result in perturbed isolation calls of mouse pups (Usui *et al.*, 2017a). Consistent with these findings, other studies have shown that brain-wide homozygous deletions of mouse *Foxp1* reduce social interactions (Bacon *et al.*, 2015) and the rate of pup isolation calls upon removal of the mother (Fröhlich *et al.*, 2017). As described in earlier Chapters of this thesis, and other recent studies, the contributions of FoxP1 to vocal behaviours have also been investigated in the zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*), a songbird in which males learn their vocalisations by imitation of a tutor (Immelmann, 1962; Zann, 1997; Tchernichovski *et al.*, 2001)(Doupe and Kuhl, 1999; Scharff and Petri, 2011; Bruno *et al.*, 2021). It is of particular interest for this thesis that *FoxP1* is expressed in distinct nuclei in the brains of songbirds, including those known to be important for vocal learning, such as Area X in the striatum. Compared to the surrounding tissue, *FoxP1* expression is also elevated in the robust nucleus of the arcopallium (RA, a motor nucleus), the premotor area HVC, and the entire mesopallium, including the caudomedial mesopallium (CMM), which is a secondary auditory area (Haesler *et al.*, 2004; Teramitsu *et al.*, 2004; Mendoza *et al.*, 2015). With the exception of RA, *FoxP1* seems to be highly expressed in brain areas associated with tasks related to auditory perception and feedback. Notably, and despite the absence of Area X and a negligible state of RA in female zebra finches

(Nottebohm and Arnold, 1976), neural *FoxP1* expression patterns are highly similar between sexes of this species (Teramitsu *et al.*, 2004).

Genetic manipulations that reduce expression levels of *FoxP1* in the basal ganglia Area X of juvenile male zebra finches lead to impaired song learning, as do knockdowns of paralogues FoxP2 and FoxP4, albeit with differences in the nature of impairments (Haesler *et al.*, 2007; Murugan *et al.*, 2013; Norton *et al.*, 2019). FoxP2 overexpression in Area X of adult zebra finch males also alters song by increasing its variability (Day *et al.*, 2019a).

Knockdown of *FoxP1* expression levels in HVC of male juvenile zebra finches has also been shown to impair song learning, but only if the knockdown occurs prior to song exposure (Garcia-Oscos *et al.*, 2021). The experiments described in prior Chapters of this thesis showed that *FoxP1* knockdown in HVC of adult female zebra finches may disrupt rewarding qualities of conspecific song (Chapter 2), while the same manipulations made during earlier developmental stages, prior to song preference establishment, do not affect preference strength in adults or preference establishment for familiar song (Chapter 3). *FoxP1* knockdown in CMM of juvenile or adult females did not affect the birds' ability to establish or maintain a song preference (Chapter 2). Knockdowns of *FoxP1* in HVC or CMM in juvenile females prior to the onset of the sensory phase, or in adults well after closure of the vocal learning period, did not alter the birds' ability to discriminate different conspecific song stimuli or categorise altered versions of them (Chapter 3). These studies characterise behavioural consequences of manipulating *FoxP1* expression in particular brain structures, but they do not give information about the neurogenetic pathways that are regulated by the transcription factor. To gain insights at that level, it is necessary to integrate the employed knockdown strategy with a molecular screening technique, which is the subject of the current Chapter.

As a transcription factor, FoxP1 acts by forming homo- or heterodimers and multimers with other FoxP molecules (Li *et al.*, 2004; Sin *et al.*, 2014; Castells-Nobau *et al.*, 2019). Together, these complexes bind to DNA and modify expression levels of other genes – its downstream targets. Identification of target genes and their respective functions can provide insight into the molecular and cellular pathways that a transcription factor regulates. For transcription factors, like FoxP1, that have highly similar orthologues in multiple species (Hannenhalli and Kaestner, 2009), model systems can be used to

facilitate the identification of target genes. Depending on the underlying motivation of a study, experiments employ model systems ranging from cell-culture to analyses of tissue obtained from genetically modified animals, such as knockout mice, or zebra finches which underwent localised knockdowns.

To identify genes and pathways which are regulated by transcription factors such as FoxP1, multiple alternative molecular approaches are available. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) methods make it possible to define the genomic interaction sites of a DNA-binding protein (Buck and Lieb, 2004; Park, 2009). These techniques involve cross-linking of DNA-binding molecules to the DNA, followed by immunoprecipitation of linked protein-DNA complexes with antibodies that specifically recognize the protein of interest. The precipitated complexes are then treated to remove the crosslinks, and the extracted DNA is analysed, for example by screening with arrays (ChIP-chip, Buck and Lieb, 2004) or via sequencing (ChIP-seq, Furey, 2012), to identify which genomic regions are enriched in the immunoprecipitated samples. The process yields knowledge of the genomic binding sites of the protein, and this information can be used to determine the identities of candidate target genes that it may regulate. However, the success of ChIP-based assays depends critically on the reliability of the antibody used for immunoprecipitation, and levels of enrichment can be subtle, making it difficult to identify differences between datasets. Additionally, the target epitope of the antibodies employed may be blocked by additional proteins.

For studies in which genetic manipulations are used to alter the levels of an important regulatory molecule, comparison of expression profiles represents a valuable strategy for characterizing downstream pathways. While ChIP uncovers primary targets of a transcription factor, expression profiling can identify both direct and indirectly regulated targets. These methods do not rely on binding sites of one specific protein but consider changes throughout the transcriptome (Pollack *et al.*, 1999). RNA is extracted, reverse transcribed, fragmented, amplified and can then be analysed with a number of techniques. In microarray-based expression profiling, the amplified fragments are tagged and applied onto a chip which contains complementary fragments based on the transcriptome of the species being studied. Tagged fragments binding their complementary strands on the chip are used to characterize the levels of expression of genes in the sample. However, due to the necessary preselection of complementary probe fragments, microarray analyses may be biased and are not optimal for covering

the entire transcriptome. These limitations have been largely overcome with the application of next-generation sequencing techniques to expression profiling (RNAsequencing) allowing for quantification of transcript levels across the transcriptome in a less biased manner than arrays (Cloonan *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2009).

Genome wide changes due to knockdowns or other genetic manipulations could also be assessed by the identification of chromatin state changes. Chromosome conformation changes can provide insight about the status of DNA within the chromatin complex and possible differences between samples (Schmitt *et al.*, 2016). Based on the accessibility of a genomic region, putative target genes and genomic regions with increased or decreased accessibility due to a gene specific knockdown (for example) can be deduced. However, this approach requires relatively large amounts of DNA from the target tissue.

In mice, shRNA mediated *Foxp1* knockdown has been found to yield changes in the expression of genes with GO terms associated to neurogenesis, regulation of synapse organisation and nervous system development, in addition to the Notch signalling pathway which in turn might contribute to impaired differentiation of neural stem cells to astrocytes and neurons *in utero* and *in vivo* (Braccioli *et al.*, 2017). In mice with heterozygous knockout of *Foxp1* in medium spiny neurons, the development of subtype composition of these neurons is altered as determined by single cell RNAseq. *Foxp1* knockout reduces the occurrence of indirect pathway spiny neurons when compared to wildtype controls, possibly due to differential regulation of genes specific to spiny neuron subtypes. Additionally, *Foxp1* knockouts result in differential regulation of genes associated to autism spectrum disorders (ASD, Anderson *et al.*, 2020). Global *Foxp1* heterozygous knockout mice show significant overlap of differentially expressed genes to human neural progenitor cells (NPC) overexpressing *FOXP1*. When compared to gene expression in striatal or hippocampal tissue from mice with global heterozygous *Foxp1* knockouts, *FOXP1* overexpressing human NPCs show a larger overlap in gene expression with striatal tissue than with hippocampus as shown by module preservation in weighted gene coexpression network analyses. Gene expression in hippocampus of mice with global heterozygous *Foxp1* knockouts also highlights pathways linked to long term potentiation, synaptic signalling and spatial memory which are all relevant for learning (Araujo *et al.*, 2015). These findings are interesting given that global heterozygous *Foxp1* knockout mice demonstrated poor

learning during Morris water maze trials, less successful performance on T-Maze tasks, and reduced maintenance of long term potentiation, assessed via slice electrophysiology (Araujo *et al.*, 2017).

In this Chapter, I took advantage of the availability of zebra finches with *FoxP1* knockdowns in selective brain regions and distinct developmental stages, as generated in my prior thesis work, to help identify *in vivo* networks downstream of this transcription factor. I employed RNA sequencing analyses (RNAseq), since that made it possible to analyse expression levels of distinct genes and pathways directly with relatively low amounts of material at a larger dynamic range, covering the entire transcriptome and with improved detection of weakly expressed genes (Wang *et al.*, 2009; Zhao *et al.*, 2014). In the process of RNAseq, total RNA from different samples is extracted and reverse transcribed into cDNA which is further fragmented and purified prior to library generation. Following amplification of these libraries, the fragmented cDNA strands are sequenced and aligned to a reference genome. Based on the alignment, each fragment can be assigned to a coding or non-coding region of the target organism's genome. The number of assignments can then be used to determine and compare gene expression levels based on the number of fragments assigned to a specific region (= counts).

In this study, total RNA from the targeted brain areas of the different groups was extracted. Genes and pathways associated with knockdowns of *FoxP1* in general were investigated with the aim to identify affected genes and molecular pathways in the brain in general, but also how these genes and pathways are differentially affected in the context of age or developmental status (juvenile and adult groups) and local brain areas (HVC and CMM). Following the identification of unique and overlapping genes and pathways, the findings were compared to previous mouse studies focusing on downstream targets of Foxp1, and potential physiological and behavioural consequences that have been related to dysfunction of this important transcription factor.

Material and Methods

Test subjects

Subjects were 96 female zebra finches from the breeding colony at the Freie Universität Berlin. At Leiden University, birds were housed in groups until behavioural testing was started (Chapters 2 and 3 of this thesis). The four treatment groups were defined by when (as juveniles $<$ 25 days post hatch (dph) or adults $>$ 90 dph) and where (HVC or CMM) they received the *FoxP1* knockdown and labelled accordingly: HVC juvenile, HVC adult, CMM juvenile, CMM adult (for details see Method sections of Chapters 2 and 3). Each corresponding knockdown and control group consisted of 12 females.

Viral particles and injection

Viral particles were produced at the Freie Universität Berlin as described in Chapters 2 and 3. Birds were injected with one of two shRNA constructs complementary to *FoxP1* mRNA to knock down *FoxP1* expression. Both knockdown constructs also contained a GFP sequence to label successfully transduced cells. The two different knockdown constructs were employed to obtain an opportunity to filter for putative offtarget effects induced by either one of the shRNAs (Song *et al.*, 2015). A similar construct which contained the sequence for GFP but no *FoxP1* targeting shRNA was used for control animals. The sequence of the two short-hairpin constructs was as follows (Norton *et al.*, 2019):

Viral particles were produced in seven batches for each knockdown construct, and five batches of control virus. Each virus batch was injected into both hemispheres of on average 4 birds (range $2 - 6$). This corresponds to on average 6 different batches per treatment group (range $3 - 9$) including matched controls. By merging samples from birds which received injections from different batches into larger control or knockdown groups, it was possible to control for batch-specific effects due to differences in titre or transduction-efficiency (for details see extended data of Chapter 2, Table 2-1). The injection procedure is described in detail in Chapters 2 and 3.

Briefly, viral constructs were injected bilaterally in one of the two target areas of a juvenile or adult female (see Chapter 2 Table 1 for injection coordinates in reference to the bifurcation of the midsagittal sinus). The injection site was closed with previously removed bone tissue, and the skin was sealed. After the surgical procedure, the birds were returned to their respective housing cages.

Brain extraction

After completion of behavioural experiments (preference tests and Go/Nogo tasks, described in Chapters 2 and 3 respectively), females were housed in their home cages with other familiar females for at least one week. Between 3 – 5 pm on the day before brain extraction, birds were individually transferred into familiar sound attenuated chambers used during the prior behavioural tests. In order to minimise activitydependent expression changes, birds were sacrificed with an overdose of isoflurane gas before light onset on the next morning (6:30 – 6:50 AM). Birds of the juvenile groups were 179 – 210 days old and those of the adult groups 165 – 579 days old, respectively. Note that juvenile and adult refers to the developmental stage the birds received lentiviral injections while all behavioural experiments and subsequent tissue extractions where conducted in adult birds. Fresh hemispheres were separated along the midline and frozen in Tissue Tek Optimal Cutting Temperature Compound (OCT, Sakura, Leiden) on dry ice and stored at -80°C at the Language and Genetics Department at the Max Planck Institute in Nijmegen, the Netherlands.

Validation of injected area and extracted tissue

The injection site was validated immunohistochemically (Chapter 2) by staining with antibodies against FoxP1 and GFP, and counterstaining of nuclei with Hoechst (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham USA). The target areas, HVC or CMM were extracted with biopsy punches of frozen brain slices. Correct placement of the biopsy punch site in HVC or CMM was validated visually under a stereomicroscope, and GFPbased fluorescence was documented in the extracted tissue punches.

RNA extraction

GFP-positive biopsy punches were submerged in RNAlater (Qiagen, Hilden) and pooled by hemisphere for each bird. At least 12hrs after punching, a column-based

RNA extraction kit was used to extract and purify total RNA according to the manufacturer's protocol (RNeasy micro plus, Qiagen, Hilden). RNA quality and concentration were determined with a Bioanalyser RNA kit (Biorad, Hercules). Extracted RNA was stored at -80°C until transcriptome sequencing.

Total RNA sequencing

RNA sequencing was performed in three batches. The first batch contained only samples from adult HVC knockdowns and their respective controls. The second batch included adult HVC and adult CMM knockdown and control samples, while the last batch consisted of knockdown and control samples from all targeted areas and ages (see Supplementary Table 1). Only a subset of samples from all birds ($N = 104/192$, 54%) fulfilled the necessary quality criteria for sequencing (> 0.4 µg total RNA, RNA integrity index > 7.2). Drop-out rate was distributed evenly among groups resulting in 5 to 9 samples per group (see Supplement). These drop-outs can be partly attributed to cases where tissue punches did not show fluorescence under the stereomicroscope or misplaced punching sites which led to fewer biopsy punches for RNA extraction. In a recent study on gene expression differences in brain nuclei of different birds, unrelated to the present work, no samples had to be dropped. However, because that study was limited to microarray analyses, the experiments only required one fourth of the RNA amount necessary for total RNAseq analyses (Ko *et al.*, 2021). As punched tissue samples in the current study were further preselected based on the correct site of the biopsy punch and presence of fluorescence, it is not possible to make meaningful comparisons of RNA yields to those in prior work. Library preparation and sequencing was performed by Novogene Co., Ltd. (Beijing). After enrichment with oligo(dT) beads and random fragmentation, libraries were constructed with 150 – 200 base-pair (bp) inserts. cDNA was synthesised using random hexamers and reverse transcriptase. The second strand was completed by nick-translation with a custom second-strand synthesis buffer provided by Illumina (San Diego, USA) containing dNTPs, RNAse H and *Escherichia coli* polymerase I. cDNA libraries then underwent purification, terminal repair, A-tailing, ligation of sequencing adapters, size selection and PCR enrichment. Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencers were used to produce > 20 million single-end, 50-bp reads.

Gene expression analyses

Read counts ranged from $17.9 - 39.9$ million reads per sample (mean: 24.2 ± 4 million reads per sample). One adult HVC control sample with significantly lower reads (bird ID: 5424; 2.48 million reads) was excluded from further data analyses. Quality control was conducted with FastQC (v0.11.9, Babraham Bioinformatics). Reads were aligned to the zebra finch Blue55 reference genome (NCBI assembly ID 5966711) using Rstudio (v1.3.1093) and the Rsubread package (v2.4.3) with standard settings (exception: indels = 10, count exon junctions). A BAM file was produced which included mapped (90.7 – 95.9 %, mean: 93.7 ± 1.2 %) and unmapped reads (see Figure 1a) to d) for controls and i) to l) for knockdowns). Multi-mapped reads were included in the analyses to cover potential splice variants. Rsubread was used to assign mapped reads (89.6 – 95.5 %, mean: 93.0 ± 1.4 %, see Figure 1e) to h) for controls and m) to p) for knockdowns) according to published annotations for the female zebra finch Blue55 reference genome. Counts were subsequently calculated according to proteincoding genes of the annotation file using standard settings of Rsubread with the exception of enabled counts of exon-exon junctions.

Figure 1: Mapped and assigned reads per age group, injected area and treatment. Mapped and unmapped reads of juvenile control samples taken from HVC (a) or CMM (b) and adult control samples from HVC (c) or CMM (d). Note that one adult HVC control sample (CAHL5424) contained fewer reads than any other sample and was thus excluded from further analyses. Mapped and unmapped reads from knockdown samples taken from juvenile HVC (i), juvenile CMM (j), adult HVC (k) and adult CMM (l). The number of assigned reads is shown for control samples from juvenile HVC (e), juvenile CMM (f), adult HVC (g) and adult CMM (h). Assigned reads of knockdown samples is shown in the same order from m) to p). Individual sample IDs are indicated at the bottom and consist of a four-letter, four-digit code that is structured as follows: first letter = C for control or K for knockdown; second letter = J for juvenile or A for adult; third letter = H for HVC or C for CMM; fourth letter = L for left hemisphere or R for right hemisphere. Four numbers indicate the individual bird ID the sample was taken from. Hemispheres were not analysed separately during further analyses.

Gene counts were normalised using reads per kilobase per million mapped reads (RPKM, Mortazavi *et al.*, 2008). Differentially expressed genes were limited to occurrences of >1 read per million mapped in at least two samples and visualised based on K-means clustering analyses.

Gene expression comparisons were conducted in Matlab release 2020a (Mathworks, Natick, USA) with the bioinformatics toolbox. Variance of read counts was identified by plotting the dispersion against the mean of the respective sample group. To determine statistical significance of gene expression differences, negative binomial models of the normalised read counts were conducted assuming a Poisson distribution, a constant variance link and a locally regressed non-parametric smooth function of the mean. Locally regressed modelling provided the best fit and was chosen for further analyses. To account for multiple testing of differentially expressed genes between control and knockdown samples, p-values were adjusted according to the Benjamini-Hochberg method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) considering a 10% false positive rate. Differences in gene expression were visualised as a Venn diagram to identify overlapping and exclusive genes identified for each group. As the female reference genome has a slightly lower coverage (82.5) than the latest reference genome of the male zebra finch (88.2, NCBI assembly ID 10005361), highly significant but unannotated loci were referenced to the male reference genome to identify potentially unannotated regions in the female genome. Additionally, annotations from an Affymetrix array containing predicted exon sequences from previous incomplete zebra finch genome assemblies (MPIO-ZF1s520811, Dittrich *et al.*, 2014) were used to cross-reference loci that were not annotated in the female reference genome.

Relative expression levels of *FoxP1*, based on RPKM differences between control and knockdown samples, were further compared with those determined during qPCR analyses of the same samples. Gene ontology enrichment (GO) and local network analyses were conducted based on avian/mammalian gene orthologues in STRING v11 (Szklarczyk *et al.*, 2019) considering only categories with a p-value <0.05 and corrected for false discovery rate (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). All assigned genes across all control and knockdown groups from this study were used as the background reference to control for brain- and area-derived enrichments. Unbiased gene set enrichment analyses was conducted with GSEA v4.1.0 (Subramanian *et al.*, 2005) including only genes with >1 read per million mapped in at least two control and

knockdown samples, respectively. Standard settings remained unchanged and the cutoff was set to a gene set size of 15. The gene set database was based on a complete list of human gene symbols (c2.all.v7.4.symbols) and data were permutated 1000 times by phenotype (control or knockdown). Annotation data of the identified genes were based on a chip annotation database integrated in the GSEA programme to identify human orthologues of the counts mapped in the samples of this study (Human Gene Symbol with Remapping MSigDB.v7.4). The overlaps of differentially expressed genes of this study and databases were tested for significance using a Chi-Square test including Yate's correction for continuity.

Results

Modelling of normalised read counts and identification of genes showing significant differences in expression

Read counts of this study were modelled best by a negative binomial distribution based on a local regression for control and knockdown samples respectively taken from juvenile HVC (Fig. 2a, b), juvenile CMM (Fig 2e, f), adult HVC (Fig 2i, j) or adult CMM (Fig. 2m, n). The relationship between local dispersion and means for samples from different regions and developmental stages did not differ between control (blue) and knockdown samples (red) from birds injected as juveniles in HVC (Fig. 2c), as juveniles in CMM (Fig. 2g), and as adults in CMM (Fig. 2o). However, dispersion of normalised reads of HVC from birds which received a control construct was positively biased (Fig. 2k) and thus these may have a possible underrepresentation of weakly expressed genes in comparison to their respective knockdown samples. The distribution of differentially expressed genes in knockdown samples is shown as volcano plots for samples from juvenile HVC (Fig 2d), juvenile CMM (Fig 2h), adult HVC (Fig 2l) and adult CMM samples (Fig 2p). The distribution of log2 fold changes of individual control (filled circles) and knockdown samples (open circles) across all groups (Fig. 2q) does not indicate a bias in fold change of one specific subgroup or treatment and thus comparable levels of gene expression changes between all groups. The relative expression of *FoxP1* in target areas of knockdown birds was comparable to qPCR data used previously to identify knockdown efficiency (Chapter 2). However, as determined by a two-way ANOVA, the variance differed between assessment methods (p < 0.0001), while no significant differences were evident for area and age during

treatment ($p > 0.05$) or the identified knockdown efficiency within individual groups (p > 0.05).

Figure 2: Feature count properties, differentially expressed genes and their feature count distribution, and comparison between relative FoxP1 expression shown by qPCR and RNAseq. Each column symbolises one subgroup. a) – d) represent the data

from juvenile HVC birds, e) – h) from juvenile CMM birds, i) – l) from adult HVC birds and m) – p) from adult CMM birds. a), e), i) and m) show the relation between a subgroups variance and mean for control samples, in blue. The same data are shown for knockdown samples in b), f), j) and n), in red. In order to specify the linkage type between the variance and mean, three approaches were taken. The purple line shows the results of assuming a linear correlation between variance and mean. The yellow curve shows the results of assuming the variance is a sum of the mean and a constant multiplied by the squared mean (yellow curve). Considering the variance as the mean read count variability, and applying a locally regressed smoothing function, results in the best fitting correlation (light blue curve). c), g), k) and o) show scatter plots of the log2 transformed dispersion and means of each subgroup's feature counts for control *samples in blue and knockdown samples in red. In the subgroup of birds which received a control construct as adults in HVC, the dispersion dominates over the mean which suggests that more genes are highly expressed in the control when compared to the knockdown samples. d), h), l) and p) show volcano plots of all differentially expressed genes in the different subgroups. The dotted line indicates the significance threshold at an adjusted p-value of 0.05. Filled and enlarged circles indicate the differential expression strength of FoxP1. Colourbars symbolise the log2 fold change for each differentially expressed gene. q) shows two-dimensional scaling based on overall log2 fold changes of genes across all samples of this study, separated by colour. Filled circles indicate control samples, while open circles indicate knockdown samples. r) shows the relative FoxP1 expression levels in knockdown samples compared to control samples for a qPCR- and an RNAseq-based approach for all different subgroups. Relative expression levels differ significantly between results obtained by qPCR and RNAseq across all groups but neither between the target areas and developmental stages nor the assessment methods within each area and developmental stage (two-way ANOVA + TukeyHSD, method (F=43.81, p < 0.0001), subgroup (F=2.65, p > 0.05), method x subgroup(F=1.12, p > 0.05).*

Mapped genes across different groups

The number of identified genes based on read assignments varied between groups (Table 2, range 10,923 juvenile HVC control – 12,642 Adult HVC control).

Table 2: Number of protein-coding genes per group and treatment (Control = Ctrl, Knockdown = KD) which were identified based on sequenced, mapped and assigned transcripts from total RNA sequencing data.

Group	Juvenile HVC		Juvenile CMM		Adult HVC		Adult CMM	
Treatment	Ctrl	KD	Ctrl	KD	Ctrl	KD	Ctrl	KD
# of identified genes	10,923		11,068 11,439 11,140 12,642 12,530 11,841 11,409					

In summary, counts were assigned to 13,695 protein-coding, annotated or predicted genes (Supplementary Table 2). This number corresponds to 84.5% of all 16,197 annotated or predicted protein-coding genes of the female zebra finch reference genome that was used for annotation. When non-coding genes and pseudogenes are also included, transcripts from 63.57% of 21,543 annotated segments of the reference genome were mapped and assigned in this study.

Dendrograms of differentially expressed genes

Hierarchical clustering of normalised reads from all genes identified across all samples of all groups results in a dendrogram which clusters all samples by age during treatment and the targeted area (Fig 3a). Samples generated from HVC of birds treated as adults were allocated in the most distant cluster in relation to the other three groups. Among the remaining three main clusters, juvenile CMM samples were the most distant, and juvenile HVC and adult CMM samples the closest. However, neither treatment nor hemisphere of the samples segregated in the overall hierarchical dendrogram, which is why samples from each subgroup of this analyses were then clustered separately. Samples from HVC of birds injected as juveniles form two main clusters to which both controls and knockdowns across both hemispheres contribute similarly (Fig. 3b). Samples from birds injected in CMM as juveniles cluster in two groups based on the normalised counts of all identified genes irrespective of hemisphere or treatment (Fig. 3c). Hierarchical clustering of normalised gene counts

of samples obtained from birds injected as adults in HVC (Fig. 3d) or CMM (Fig. 3e) results in three main clusters which neither segregate by hemisphere nor by treatment. In summary, hierarchical clustering suggests that local knockdowns during different developmental stages contribute differently to the transcriptome since the four treatment groups were well separated in the dendrogram that included all samples. However, when the groups are clustered separately, interindividual gene expression differences outweigh the effects caused by local knockdowns, as no clear discrimination of the used construct is evident at the transcriptome-wide level.

Figure 3: Hierarchically clustered dendrograms of gene counts. Columns are clustered by sample ID, rows by gene ID. A heatmap encodes the standardised counts of the genes present in the dataset in relation to a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. a) The dendrogram of the entire RNAseq data set shows clear clustering of *knockdowns at different ages and in different areas as indicated by the colours of the dendrogram. b) to e) show individual dendrograms for each subgroup and indicate that,*

considered at the transcriptome-wide level, the within group effects of interindividual variability appear larger than effects of knockdowns. This is underlined by the close clustering of both hemispheres of one bird whenever data from both hemispheres were available. Even though some control and knockdown samples form subclusters, there is no clear overall distinction between treatments (i.e. control versus knockdown) within the dendrograms.

Differentially expressed genes

The number of genes which showed higher expression in response to *FoxP1* knockdown varied for the different subgroups, ranging from 26 (adult HVC) to 268 (adult CMM). (Figure 4a). Only a few such genes overlapped between different treatment groups, and there was no gene that overlapped between all groups (Figure 4a and b). The overlap was largest between the juvenile groups, where ten genes showed higher expression in response to *FoxP1* knockdown in both HVC and CMM. Four of these genes were annotated in the female zebra finch reference genome (*EXTL2*, *ASS1*, *THSD4*, *RP2*), while one gene was unannotated in the female reference genome (LOC100230755) yet recently annotated as coding for *ADAM33* in the male zebra finch reference genome. The last annotated gene overlapping between juvenile HVC and CMM samples codes for a tRNA (TRNAG-GCC). Four unannotated loci are also upregulated in both juvenile knockdown groups. Three loci, all unannotated, showed higher expression in response to *FoxP1* knockdown in both adult groups of this study, including one putative orthologue (LOC100222415) of *CYP2D14*, a cytochrome oxidase. One unannotated gene each overlapped between juvenile and adult HVC (LOC116806907) or CMM (LOC100230293) samples. According to previous microarray analyses (Dittrich *et al.*, 2014), the unannotated gene identified in both juvenile and adult CMM samples might be an orthologue of *CYB561*, a cytochrome oxireductase. One gene showed consistently elevated expression in response to *FoxP1* knockdown in three of the four subgroups (i.e. all except the adult HVC samples), annotated as NEK5, NIMA (never in Mitosis Gene A)-Related Kinase 5, encoding a serine/threonine-protein kinase.

Of the 26 genes that exclusively showed elevated expression in adult HVC knockdowns, *RPE65*, *PLXNB1* and *CUTA* may be of special interest, considering the prior literature. *RPE65* codes for retinoid isomerohydrolase; this protein is involved in

retinoic acid signalling, a pathway that has been linked to FOXP2 regulatory networks in previous studies (Van Rhijn and Vernes, 2015). *PLXNB1* expression has been reported in HVC (Lovell *et al.*, 2008) and the gene is implicated in the SLIT-ROBO signalling pathway (Xu and Fan, 2008; Hirschberg *et al.*, 2010; Schiweck *et al.*, 2015); variants of genes in this pathway have been associated with developmental dyslexia, expressive vocabulary in human infants, and performance on non-word repetition tasks in some studies (Hannula-Jouppi *et al.*, 2005; Bates *et al.*, 2010; Pourcain *et al.*, 2014; Mozzi *et al.*, 2016). Deletions of a human genomic region encompassing the ortholog *CUTA*, a CutA Divalent Cation Tolerance Homolog have been identified in humans with intellectual disability, hearing loss and delayed speech development (Writzl and Knegt, 2013) or absence of language (Zollino *et al.*, 2010).

Table 3 gives information on the ten most significant genes with elevated expression in each subgroup of this study. The entire set of significant genes is shown in Supplementary Table 3. In juvenile HVC knockdowns, *RGR, RLBP1* and *TUBAL3* showed significantly elevated expression as compared to controls. *RGR* and *RLBP1* encode members of the retinoid cycle (Saari *et al.*, 2001; Maeda *et al.*, 2003), which could be interesting in light of the putative link proposed between the dimerising partner of FoxP1, FoxP2 and retinoid related processes (Van Rhijn and Vernes, 2015). *TUBAL3* codes for a tubulin that may interact with the SLIT-ROBO signalling pathway according to the PathCards database (OMICS_07645). Among genes showing elevated expression in juvenile CMM knockdowns are *RP2*, encoding a protein implicated in retinitis pigmentosa in humans (Veltel and Wittinghofer, 2009), *IFI6*, encoding an interferon inducible protein, and *ROBO2*. In adult CMM knockdowns, genes with increased expression are associated to mitochondria, the respiratory complex and ribosomal actions as indicated by the top enriched cellular component GO terms (see Table 5, next section). Among these genes is *NDUFB1*, an oxireductase that shows reduced expression in the blood of early stage Alzheimer's disease patients (Lunnon *et al.*, 2017).

The number of genes showing significantly reduced expression in knockdown birds also varied across groups, ranging from 34 (adult HVC) to 120 (juvenile HVC) (Fig. 4c and d, Supplementary Table 3). Few genes overlapped between the treatment areas/stages, and *FoxP1* was the only to show significantly reduced expression across all groups (Fig. 4d). Knockdowns in both juvenile groups resulted in lower expression

for three protein-coding genes (*EIF2B5*, *SPOCK2*, *B2M*) and one unannotated locus (LOC10228369). Adult knockdowns of either area did not share any differentially expressed genes. Juvenile and adult knockdowns in HVC resulted in reduced expression of *IFI6*, encoding an interferon inducible protein and *SPINT1*, encoding a serine peptidase inhibitor. Notably, *IFI6* expression was significantly elevated in juvenile CMM knockdowns, raising the possibility that it may be differentially regulated by FoxP1 in different brain areas. In juvenile HVC and adult CMM two protein-coding genes (*ETFB*, *DHX33*) and four unannotated loci (LOC101234199, LOC100229421, LOC100224927, LOC116807667) overlapped between samples. *ETFB* is potentially linked to ASD according to the SFARI database which lists genes associated with this group of developmental disabilities. Although officially unannotated, it is thought that LOC100229421 may code for interferon-induced protein IFIT5 (Scalf, 2018), while LOC100224927 has been annotated in the male zebra finch genome as *OASL*, an oligoadenylate synthetase. All groups, with the exception of adult HVC knockdowns, overlapped in showing significantly reduced expression of *JCHAIN*, an immunoglobulin, as well as an unannotated locus LOC116809013 (Fig 4d).

Considering current knowledge on cognitive phenotypes associated with genetic manipulations of *FoxP1* in animals or disruptive variants in humans, some of the genes showing reduced expression in only one treatment group may be of special interest (Table 4 and Supplementary Table 3). In juvenile HVC knockdowns, such genes include the chromatin remodelling gene *ACTL6B*, human mutations of which result in intellectual disability, absence of speech or limited vocabulary (Bell *et al.*, 2019; Fichera *et al.*, 2019), and *DBN1,* encoding an actin-binding protein implicated in Alzheimer's disease in humans, and neuronal migration and synaptic plasticity in animal models (Shirao *et al.*, 2017). In juvenile CMM knockdowns, genes with significantly reduced expression included *SEMA3E,* encoding a semaphorin protein which forms complexes with plexins to regulate neuronal development, possibly via the SLIT-ROBO pathway (Xu and Fan, 2008; Schiweck *et al.*, 2015; Mata *et al.*, 2018). Genes exclusively downregulated in birds which received a *FoxP1* knockdown as adults in HVC are e.g. *PNMT*, *HRH1*, *TMEM233* and *TUBAL3* which is upregulated in birds of the juvenile HVC group. *PNMT* and *HRH1* are both implicated in the catecholamine pathway (Marley *et al.*, 1991; Kubovcakova *et al.*, 2004). In mouse astrocytes, homozygous knockouts of *HRH1* resulted in reduced anxiety and impaired novel object recognition

memory (Kárpáti *et al.*, 2019). Knockdown of *FoxP1* in CMM of adults resulted in reduced expression of *CHRNA10*, which encodes a subunit of a nicotinic acetylcholine receptor, and is implicated in auditory olivocochlear system development and function in mice (Vetter *et al.*, 2007). Deletion of the interferon regulatory factor *IRF1* in mice leads to cognitive impairments as demonstrated by reduced performance during water maze tasks (Mogi *et al.*, 2018). However, no cognitive impairments in female zebra finches which received a *FoxP1* knockdown could be identified during behavioural experiments of this thesis.

Table 3: Top ten genes with most significantly elevated expression following local FoxP1 knockdowns in each subgroup. Gene symbols are followed by their average counts in knockdown and control samples, their respective log2 fold change (log2FC) and p-values adjusted by false discovery rate. In the last column, the gene name and an associated function are indicated. For loci which are not annotated in the reference genome, putative orthologues based on previous micro-array data (Dittrich *et al.*, 2014) *are indicated.*

Table 4: Top ten genes with most significantly reduced expression following local FoxP1 knockdowns in each subgroup. Gene symbols are followed by their average counts in knockdown and control samples, their respective log2 fold change (log2FC) and p-values adjusted by false discovery rate. In the last column, the gene name and an associated function are indicated. For loci which are not annotated in the reference genome, putative orthologues based on previous micro-array data (Dittrich *et al.*, 2014) *are indicated.*

Figure 4: Overlapping and exclusive differentially expressed genes across all subgroups. a) shows a Venn diagram of genes with significantly elevated expression which are exclusively represented in one or shared across multiple subgroups. b) shows the list of genes corresponding to a). As a behavioural phenotype was identified for birds which received a knockdown in HVC as adults (see Chapter 2 of this thesis), genes which exclusively show elevated expression in these birds are listed separately. Similar to a), c) shows a Venn diagram of genes with significantly reduced expression, while d) lists the genes represented in c).

GO terms and local network clusters

Due to the low number of overlapping genes which showed significantly increased or reduced expression across all experimental groups, GO and network terms were analysed separately for each region and developmental stage. The ten most enriched GO terms of each category and network terms are shown for genes with increased (Table 5) and reduced (Table 6) expression associated with *FoxP1* knockdown. In birds which received a knockdown as juveniles in HVC, no GO terms were significantly enriched, and only one network cluster associated with retinol metabolic process and retinol binding (ID: 9606_CL_25005) was enriched. Genes with elevated expression in juvenile CMM knockdown samples are represented by multiple GO terms of the biological processes (BP) and cell cycle (CC) categories. All three significantly enriched BP terms are related to cell adhesion. Seven of the ten most enriched GO terms of the CC category are related to plasma membrane or the extracellular matrix. Neuron projection (GO:0043005), postsynapse (GO:0098794) and syntrophin complex (GO:0016013) are also significantly enriched terms. Multiple enriched local network clusters based on genes with elevated expression in juvenile CMM samples represent functions related to cell adhesion, and there was also enrichment for networks related to voltage gated potassium channels (9606_CL_8930), interneuron migration (9606_CL_230) and growth response (9606_CL:2481). In adult HVC samples, enrichment was seen for one BP term related to bone trabecula morphogenesis (GO:0061430) and one term of the molecular function (MF) category corresponding to the membrane protein phosphatidylserine (GO:0001786). In this group of genes showing increased expression local network clusters are related to retinol metabolic processes and retinol-binding (9606_CL:24001), similar to juvenile HVC samples. Additionally, a local cluster implicated in mixed processes such as matrix metalloproteinases (9606_CL:907) is enriched across genes with elevated expression in adult HVC knockdown samples.

The top GO terms of genes showing increased expression in adult CMM knockdowns are related to ribosomal or mitochondrial processes across all three GO categories. The most enriched BP terms are linked to processes from e.g. translation (GO:0006412) to protein targeting to the endoplasmatic reticulum (GO:0045047) and protein localisation (GO:0072594). Six of ten CC terms are related to ribosomes, and four are implicated in mitochondrial processes. Out of ten MF terms, two are related to

ribosomal functions, six represent mitochondrial functions and cellular respiration, and the remaining two relate to structural molecule activity (GO:0005198) and proton transmembrane transporter activity (GO:0015078). Local clusters enriched in genes with increased expression following knockdown in adult CMM represent similar functions to the enriched GO terms, including e.g. ribosomal activities such as peptide chain elongation (9606_CL:14976) or mitochondrial complexes like the respirasome (9606 CL:22328). As the number of significantly enriched GO terms based on upregulated genes in adult CMM knockdowns was larger than in all other groups, the entire set of GO terms of this group is listed in Supplementary Table 4.

Compared to GO terms and local network clusters enriched in genes with increased expression in specific knockdown groups, few terms and networks were enriched in genes with reduced expression (Table 6). In this case, for juvenile HVC knockdowns there was enrichment for none of the GO terms and only one local cluster, with mixed associations including axonal growth inhibition (9606_CL:616). Genes with reduced expression in juvenile CMM knockdowns were enriched for one BP term on antibacterial humoral response (GO:0019731), CC terms related to mitochondrial processes such as mitochondrial proton-transporting ATP synthase complex (GO:0005753), and organelle membrane related processes such as e.g. organelle envelope (GO:0031967). Two enriched local clusters were related to oxidative phosphorylation (9606_CL:22327) and proton-transporting ATP synthase complex (9606_CL:22571). For genes with knockdown-related reductions of expression in birds that had been injected as adults, there were no enriched GO terms or local clusters.

In addition, GO terms and network clusters were assessed for genes exclusively regulated in birds which received a local *FoxP1* knockdown in HVC as adults, since this subgroup had shown a behavioural phenotype in Chapter 2 of this study. In this case, for genes with significantly increased expression, enrichment was seen for GO:0061430 which is associated to bone trabecula morphogenesis, and two local network clusters: 9606_CL_24001 retinol metabolic process, and retinol binding and 9606_CL_907 mixed, incl. activation of matrix metalloproteinases and dissolution of fibrin clot. For genes with significantly reduced expression, no GO terms or clusters were enriched. The only detected enrichment in this set of downregulated genes was attributed to a UniProt keyword (KW-0297) associated to G-protein coupled receptor

which is further linked to two MF GO terms G protein-coupled receptor activity (GO:0004930) and G protein-coupled receptor signalling pathway (GO:0007186).

Table 5: Significantly enriched gene ontology (GO) terms and local clusters based on genes with increased expression following local FoxP1 knockdowns in each subgroup. GO terms and local clusters are based on the human orthologues of the genes found to be differentially expressed in this study. Analyses are based on data deposited in the string database (v11.0). The maximum ten most significant GO terms are clustered based on their affiliation to cellular components (CC), molecular functions (MF) or biological processes (BP). Each term is followed by the number of genes contributing to it as well as the total number of genes represented by each term and its respective false discovery rate (FDR).

Table 6: Significantly enriched GO terms and local clusters based on genes with decreased expression following local FoxP1 knockdowns in each subgroup. GO terms and local clusters are based on the human orthologues of the genes found to be differentially expressed in this study. Analyses are based on data deposited in the string database (v11.0). GO terms are clustered based on their affiliation to cellular components (CC), molecular functions (MF) or biological processes (BP). Note that no significantly enriched GO terms or local clusters were identified in each of the adult subgroups. Each term is followed by the number of genes contributing to it as well as the terms' size and its respective false discovery rate (FDR).

Gene set enrichment analyses

Due to the low number of overlapping differentially expressed genes between groups which suggests large variability, gene set enrichment analyses (GSEA) was performed to allow next to GO term analyses for an additional, less biased perspective on the putative implications of all genes which were identified based on the mapped and assigned reads of each sample. During GSEA analyses, normalised counts of all assigned genes filtered for low expression were ranked and weighted based on their log2fold-change. Subsequently the association of a gene to a specific pathway elevated this pathways' normalised enrichment score (NES), while no known pathway contribution of a gene respectively lowered it. As samples segregated by age during injection and injected area during hierarchical clustering, GSEA was performed separately for each group (Fig. 5, Supplementary Table 5).

For each GSEA, the 50 genes with increased or decreased expression which contribute most to the outcome of the gene set enrichment analyses are shown in matrix plots for juvenile HVC (Fig. 5a), juvenile CMM (Fig. 5b), adult HVC (Fig. 5c), and adult CMM samples (Fig. 5d). Note that the downregulated *FoxP1* in knockdowns of this study contributes most to gene sets enriched in these samples across all groups.

In samples from juvenile HVC, gene set enrichment scores are bimodally distributed (Fig. 5e). This distribution indicates comparable numbers of gene sets with high and low enrichment scores where high scores correspond to enrichments in control samples and low scores suggest enrichment in knockdown samples, respectively. However, no gene set was enriched significantly in this group. In samples from juvenile CMM (Fig. 5f) enrichment scores are negatively biased with three significantly enriched gene sets (FDR < 0.25) in knockdown samples. The significantly enriched gene sets consist of genes which are upregulated in an epithelial cell line after stimulation with serum (FDR = 0.22, NES = -2.04, Amit *et al.*, 2007), genes which are upregulated in a cell line derived from colon cancer after expression of FOXO3 (FDR = 0.21 , NES = $-$ 1.95, Delpuech *et al.*, 2007) and genes which are downregulated in amyloidosis plasma cells in comparison to multiple myeloma cells (FDR = 0.23 , NES = -1.93 , Abraham *et al.*, 2005). No gene sets are enriched significantly in any of the adult groups, yet gene sets of adult HVC samples are biased towards negative enrichment scores (Fig. 5g) whereas adult CMM samples indicate a bias towards positive gene set enrichment scores (Fig. 5h).

Figure 5: Gene set enrichment analyses (GSEA) for each of the investigated subgroups. a) – d) show heatmaps of differentially expressed genes as they were ranked by GSEA based on their contribution to gene sets in samples from a) juvenile HVC, b) juvenile CMM, c) adult HVC and d) adult CMM (d). Each row represents one gene as indicated by its symbol on the right. Each column consists of the data generated from one sample as indicated at the top. Control samples are labelled in blue, knockdown samples in red, respectively. e) – h) show the respective enrichment scores for the number of gene sets identified in each subgroup consisting of samples from e) juvenile HVC, f) juvenile CMM, g) adult HVC or h) adult CMM. Negative scores

represent enrichment in the knockdown samples while positive scores represent *enrichment in controls.*

Differentially expressed genes overlapping with a previous study of the striatum in heterozygous *FoxP1* **knockout mice**

64.5% (324) of all genes with increased expression and 46.1% (111) of all genes with decreased expression in this study (Supplementary Table 6) overlap significantly ($\chi^2(1, 1)$ 104) = 1643.25, $p < 0.001$) with genes previously identified in expression profiling experiments during a prior investigation of brain tissue samples from heterozygous *Foxp1* knockout mice (Araujo *et al.*, 2015). The authors of this study analysed differential gene expression in the striatum, the hippocampus and the neocortex of *Foxp1* heterozygous mice and compared the findings to consequences of *FOXP1* overexpression in human neural progenitor cells. The largest overlap of differentially expressed genes was identified between samples from mouse striatum and neural progenitors which suggests a higher level of module preservation in the striatum of mammals. Considering the direction of change, 21 genes consistently showed significant increases in expression and 18 genes consistently showed significant decreases in expression as a consequence of *FoxP1* knockout/knockdown across both studies (Table 7). However, in contrast to the overlap of genes irrespective of their direction of differential expression, neither upregulated ($\chi^2(1, 104) = 2.46$, p > 0.05) nor downregulated $(x^2(1, 104) = 0.93, p > 0.05)$ genes of both studies significantly overlapped when analysed separately.

One of these overlapping genes shows significant increases in expression in both juvenile knockdown groups of this study and codes for Argininosuccinate synthetase 1 (*ASS1*). At least one human patient with a mutation in *ASS1* has also presented with speech delay (Lin *et al.*, 2019). Overlapping genes which show significant decreases in expression in both juvenile groups of this study are those coding for Beta-2- Microglobulin (*B2M*) and Testican-2 (*SPOCK2*). *B2M* expression increases with age in humans and mice, and artificially increased levels result in impaired performance in radial arm water mazes in mice whereas absence of B2M in mice leads to increased performance in the same type of maze (Smith *et al.*, 2015). SPOCK2 is a proteoglycan that is responsive to retinoic acid signalling in mice (Wei *et al.*, 2016). Another overlapping gene is *RPE65* of the retinoic acid signalling pathway which shows reduced expression in juvenile HVC knockdowns. Finally, two overlapping genes

(*MGST1*, *PTGR1*) contributing to the prostaglandin synthase pathway (Kelner *et al.*, 2000; Dick *et al.*, 2001) which in turn affects retinoic acid signalling (Ziboh *et al.*, 1975; Stock *et al.*, 2011) show increased expression in adult CMM knockdowns.

Table 7: Genes with significant expression changes in this study which overlap in their direction with the findings of a previous study on differentially expressed genes in the striatum of heterozygous Foxp1 knockout mice (Araujo et al. 2015).

Group	Regulation	Gene ID	Name and putative function		
juvenile HVC & CMM	up	ASS ₁	Argininosuccinate Synthase 1, Citrullinemia		
juvenile HVC	up	CDKN1A	Cyclin Dependent Kinase Inhibitor 1A, tissue regeneration		
juvenile HVC	up	GFRA1	GDNF Family Receptor Alpha 1, neuron differentiation		
juvenile HVC	up	OAF	Out at first homolog, Spondylocarpotarsal Synostosis Syndrome		
juvenile HVC	up	PDLIM4	PDZ and LIM Domain4, bone development, osteoporosis		
juvenile HVC	up	PERP	P53 apoptosis effector related to PMP22, Keratinization, desmosome junctions		
juvenile HVC	up	SCGN	Secretagogin, calcium binding		
juvenile CMM	up	ENOX1	Ecto-NOX Disulfide-Thiol Exchanger 1, plasma membrane electron transport		
juvenile CMM	up	MID1	Midline 1, multiprotein formation, midline abnormalities		
juvenile CMM	up	PCDH7	Protocadherin 7, cell-cell recognition and adhesion		
adult CMM	up	DIO ₂	Iodothyronine Deiodinase 2, thyroid hormone pathway		
adult CMM	up	FBLIM1	Filamin Binding LIM Protein 1, cell adhesion to actin		
adult CMM	up	MGST1	Microsomal Glutathione S-Transferase 1, prostaglandin and inflammation		
adult CMM	up	PFDN1	Prefoldin subunit1, chaperone		
adult CMM	up	PTGR1	Prostaglandin Reductase 1, inflammation		
adult CMM	up	RPL22L1	Ribosomal protein I22 like1, sarcoma		
adult CMM	up	RPL37A	Ribosomal protein I37a, 60S subunit part		
adult CMM	up	SDC1	Syndecan1, cell binding and signalling		
adult CMM	up	ABRACL	ABRA C-Terminal Like, cleft lip		
adult CMM	up	AQP1	Aquaporin 1, ocular fluid movement		
juvenile HVC & CMM	down	B ₂ M	Beta2Micoglobulin, MHC complex		
juvenile HVC & CMM	down	SPOCK2	SPARC osteonectin, extracellular matrix, calcium binding		
juvenile HVC	down	ACBD7	Acyl-CoA Binding Domain Containing 7, lipid metabolism		
juvenile HVC	down	CD59	CD59 molecule, cell lysis		

Differentially expressed genes overlapping with the SFARI database on putative ASD risk genes

Across all age-groups and regions, six genes which showed significantly increased expression and 27 genes which showed significantly decreased expression in response to *FoxP1* knockdown are listed as putative ASD risk genes in the SFARI database (Table 8) resulting in a significant overlap $(x^2(1, 104) = 3.96, p < 0.05)$ between the differentially expressed genes of this study and putative ASD risk genes. At the time of this study, the SFARI database listed 1011 genes which are scored at four different levels based on the available evidence of a gene's relevance for ASD ranging from S (syndromic, highest) to 3 (suggestive evidence, lowest). The overlapping genes with increased expression were only identified in one of the tested groups of this study. Next to *FoxP1* which (as expected) showed reduced expression in all groups, one gene, *ETFB* (Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit beta) had significantly lower levels in juvenile HVC and adult CMM samples. As an electron transfer protein, *ETFB* is involved in the energy metabolism in mitochondria and mutations are linked to multiple acyl-CoA dehydrogenase deficiencies (Schiff *et al.*, 2006) which can result in slight speech delay (Chautard *et al.*, 2020) and neurodevelopmental disorder (Pollard *et al*., 2010) in infants.

Next to these genes overlapping between the SFARI database and more than one subgroup of these analyses, genes found to be differentially expressed in one of this studies' subgroups include *ROBO2*, *PLXNB1* and two glutamate-receptor interacting proteins *GRIP1* and *GRID1*. Neuronal homozygous deletions of *GRIP1* in mice impair synaptic plasticity and inhibitory avoidance learning and memory (Tan *et al.*, 2020). *GRID1* homozygous knockout mice demonstrate decreased social novelty preference of conspecifics and impaired memory in context specific fear learning, as well as lowered motivation in a forced swim test when compared to controls (Nakamoto *et al.*, 2020).

Table 8: Genes with significant expression changes in this study which overlap with genes listed in the SFARI gene database focused on autism candidate genes. According to SFARI the listed genes are associated with the listed phenotypes: neurodevelopmental disorder (NDD), epilepsy (EP), autism spectrum disorder (ASD), intellectual disability (ID), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), developmental delay (DD), schizophrenia (SCHZ), bipolar disorder (BIP), mental retardation (MR), Down syndrome (DS). SFARI provides a score for each gene, ranging from 3 (suggestive evidence) to 2 (strong candidate) and 1 (high confidence) up to S (syndromic).

Differentially expressed genes overlapping with the SysID database on putative risk genes for intellectual disability

Due to implications of human FOXP1 malfunctions in intellectual disability, differentially expressed genes of this study were also compared with the SysID dataset (Kochinke *et al.*, 2016) which collects genes associated to intellectual disability in humans. The database consisted of 2778 human genes at the time of this study of which 75 genes (see Table 9) overlapped significantly ($\chi^2(1, 104) = 26.63$, p < 0.0001) with differentially expressed genes in females which received local *FoxP1* knockdowns. Among the overlapping genes were *ACTL6B*, *ASS1*, *PLXNB1*, *RGR*, *SEMA3E* and *TUBAL3* which were previously listed in this Chapter as potentially interesting candidate genes that might contribute to the phenotypical consequences following FoxP1 malfunctions or altered expression levels. In addition to these previously mentioned genes, *ILRAPL1* is an overlapping gene which is significantly upregulated in juvenile CMM knockdowns. This gene encodes an interleukin 1 receptor accessory protein and its homozygous knockout in mice results in reduced dendritic spine density in cortical layer 2/3 and CA1 of the hippocampus. The same mice also show impaired spatial reference memory, working memory, fear learning and motor learning while they simultaneously present with increased social interaction when compared to controls (Yasumura *et al.*, 2014).

Table 9: Genes with significant expression changes in this study which overlap with the SysID database on genes mutated in intellectual disability.

Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the transcriptional differences following local *FoxP1* knockdowns in HVC and CMM of juvenile and adult female zebra finches. Even though not all the generated samples matched the quality criteria, the number of mapped and assigned reads was comparable between groups. Variance, mean and distribution of read counts as well as log 2fold changes did not differ visibly between the different treatment groups of this study. However, the dispersion of log2 fold changes across all genes identified in samples from birds injected in HVC as adults differed visibly between controls and knockdowns. Knockdown samples were more dispersed when compared to controls, which could be the result of variable knockdown efficiency across samples from this particular group. Different log2 dispersion does not result in read count bias when replicates within a group consist of unrelated or genetically distant samples as was the case in this study. However, dispersion is also affected by the presence of a large number of genes with a low count, which could be the case in this group as samples taken from adult HVC yielded the highest number of assigned genes which might be represented by a low number of counts (Yoon and Nam, 2017). Even though *FoxP1* knockdown efficiency varied across samples, *FoxP1* was the only gene to show significant reductions in expression in knockdowns of all groups when compared to their matched controls. Across all groups tested during this study, knockdown efficiency differed between previous qPCR analyses and the results from RNAseq, but this difference was not significant on the level of different subgroups. The assessment of relative expression levels during qPCR and total transcript counts during RNAseq analyses might account for this methodological difference. Besides *FoxP1*, no gene showed significantly altered expression across all the different knockdown groups. This suggests that region-specific but probably also interindividual differences outweigh common transcriptional changes across knockdowns. Substantive interindividual differences are also supported by the results from hierarchical clustering of samples, where samples clustered according to age during treatment and injected area but no further segregation between controls and knockdowns was visible on group level. Interindividual variability cannot be explained by activity-regulated genes as all samples were obtained in silence prior to light onset early in the morning, excluding immediate effects on different gene expression levels. However, variable knockdown efficiency and general variability in gene expression

levels between individuals with different degrees of relatedness could account for large interindividual differences.

Even though little overlap occurred between the groups of this study regarding differentially expressed genes, some GO terms and local network clusters were enriched in multiple groups. Additionally, genes with comparable functional implications were found to be differentially expressed in knockdowns injected in different areas during different developmental stages.

In all groups except for adult CMM, genes related to retinoic acid signalling, synthesis or other retinal proteins were among the genes showing the most significant increases in expression in response to *FoxP1* knockdown. Among the genes showing the most significant decreases in adult CMM knockdowns, one unannotated locus LOC100229421 is suspected to code for IFIT5 (Scalf, 2018), a retinoic acid and interferon inducible protein. Moreover, local network clusters related to retinoic acid signalling were enriched among genes showing increased expression in juvenile or adult HVC knockdowns. Taken together, these findings suggest that FoxP1 might be linked to retinoic acid signalling, possibly as a heterodimer with FoxP2 (Li *et al.*, 2004; Roeske *et al.*, 2014; Mendoza and Scharff, 2017) which is only weakly expressed in songbird HVC (Teramitsu *et al.*, 2004; Mendoza *et al.*, 2015) but has been shown to interact with the retinoic acid signalling pathway and thereby helps regulate neuronal differentiation (Devanna *et al.*, 2014; Van Rhijn and Vernes, 2015; Negwer and Schubert, 2017).

In addition to the putative gene *IFIT5* showing elevated expression in adult CMM knockdowns, other interferon-regulated genes are differentially expressed across knockdowns of all groups. Interferon signalling can be related to retinoic acid signalling as both pathways are linked and possibly potentiate each other (Pelicano *et al.*, 1997; Chelbi-Alix and Pelicano, 1999). Transcripts of interferon-related genes are among the most significantly reduced by *FoxP1* knockdown in samples of all groups except juvenile CMM where transcripts of one gene coding for an interferon-inducible protein is among the transcripts showing most significant increases. Next to the interferon signalling pathway, two more genes which show elevated expression in adult CMM knockdowns (*MGST1*, *PTGR1*) might indirectly contribute to retinoic acid related processes via prostaglandin signalling (Kelner *et al.*, 2000; Dick *et al.*, 2001). Prostaglandins have been shown to inhibit neuronal correlates of mate calling in frogs

(Schmidt and Kemnitz, 1989) and interact with retinoic acid signalling by suppressing retinoic acid synthesis (Stock *et al.*, 2011) which in turn stimulates prostaglandin production (Kim *et al.*, 2008).

Even though differentially expressed genes related to retinoic acid signalling or connected pathways were detected across all treatment groups, the behavioural changes following lentiviral *FoxP1* knockdowns were limited to adult HVC (Chapter 2). Perhaps FoxP1 and its contributions to retinoic acid signalling may be especially impactful in this area and developmental stage, as the retinoic acid synthesising enzyme zRalDH is highly expressed in HVC but not in CMM (Denisenko-Nehrbass *et al.*, 2000; Olson *et al.*, 2011) where only retinoic acid receptors are expressed (Roeske *et al.*, 2014). Dietary supplementation of retinoic acid (Wood *et al.*, 2008) or blockage of retinoic acid synthesis in HVC (Denisenko-Nehrbass *et al.*, 2000) during the critical learning phase of juvenile male zebra finches leads to more variable songs in adults.

Another possibly relevant group of genes showing differential expression in knockdown samples consists of loci related to SLIT-ROBO signalling. Among the most significant increases in expression in both juvenile and adult HVC knockdown samples was at least one gene associated to SLIT-ROBO signalling, and one gene of this pathway is also among the those showing the most significant reductions in juvenile CMM knockdown samples. Proteins of the SLIT-ROBO signalling pathway have been identified as downstream targets of human FOXP2 in vitro (Vernes *et al.*, 2007a; Konopka *et al.*, 2009), and binding partners of FoxP1 in zebra finches (Mendoza and Scharff, 2017). The SLIT-ROBO signalling pathway has been implicated in human language-related impairments (Hannula-Jouppi *et al.*, 2005; Bates *et al.*, 2010; Suda *et al.*, 2011; Pourcain *et al.*, 2014; Mozzi *et al.*, 2016) and its proteins show convergent substitutions and expression levels in vocal learning mammals (Wang *et al.*, 2015). Genes related to SLIT-ROBO signalling are also enriched in HVC of juvenile (45 days post hatch) and adult (100 days post hatch) male zebra finches (Shi *et al.*, 2021). Convergence between the avian and human orthologs of this pathway has been suggested based on differential regulation of *SLIT1* in RA of zebra finches and human laryngeal motor cortex (Pfenning *et al.*, 2014).

In addition to individual genes of specific pathways, the significant overlap with gene expression data from striatal neurons in mice with heterozygous knockout of *Foxp1* (Araujo *et al.*, 2015) further emphasizes that this transcription may regulate similar

molecular and cellular mechanisms in different species. Even though mice do not need to learn how to produce their vocalisations (Hammerschmidt *et al.*, 2012; Screven and Dent, 2019), female mice can discriminate contextual differences of male song (Hammerschmidt *et al.*, 2009; Chabout *et al.*, 2015) and develop preferences for specific songs by imprinting (Asaba *et al.*, 2014).

Next to overlaps with differentially expressed genes in mice following genetic *Foxp1* manipulations, significant subsets of genes which were differentially expressed in groups of this study are also listed as putative risk genes involved in autism spectrum disorder in the SFARI database or the SysID database on genes mutated in intellectual disability. This pattern is consistent with the involvement of *FOXP1* in phenotypes related to ASD and ID (Sollis *et al.*, 2016; Co *et al.*, 2020a).

Taken together, the potential regulation of genes related to retinoic acid, interferon, prostaglandin, SLIT-ROBO signalling, and orthologues of putative genes related to ASD-risk genes by FoxP1 in female zebra finches might enhance our understanding of the in vivo functions of this transcription factor in the songbird brain. The data presented here could be helpful for gaining new insights into how FoxP1 contributes to song motor control and auditory perception and memory in different brain areas during song production learning in male zebra finches (Norton *et al.*, 2019; Garcia-Oscos *et al.*, 2021) and perception in females (Chapter 2).

Another possibly relevant gene which shows significantly reduced expression in adult CMM knockdowns is *ETFB*. The protein that this gene encodes is implicated in energy metabolism of mitochondria, which could perhaps be related to the large amount of differentially expressed genes related to mitochondrial processes next to genes implicated in ribosomal processes in this group. This pattern of findings could be the result of biased knockdown-specific effects in CMM of adult birds, since differentially expressed genes related to energy metabolism in the mitochondria or ribosomal activity were also present in the other groups albeit at a smaller rate. Another possible contributory factor might be the different amounts of tissue that went into the RNA preparations of different groups. Tissue punches for HVC were placed at the dorsal edge of the brain resulting in lower amounts of tissue compared to CMM samples, where a biopsy punch was taken more centrally. However, as both juvenile and adult treated birds were sacrificed as adults, both groups should result in comparable differentially expressed genes unless the birds' age during the *FoxP1* knockdown

affects mitochondrial and ribosomal-related gene expression differentially. Interestingly, a recent study shows mitochondrial dysfunction in the striatum of heterozygous *Foxp1* knockout mice (Wang *et al.*, 2021) suggesting a possible contribution of altered energy supply and oxidative stress to *FoxP1*-related phenotypes.

In summary, gene expression analyses of samples generated from birds which received *FoxP1* knockdowns in HVC or CMM during different developmental stages show interesting convergences with previous studies on transcriptional differences following manipulations of this gene in other species and pathways relevant to FoxPs and vocalisation behaviours. Even though female zebra finches do not learn to produce a song of their own, FoxP1 might be implicated in similar pathways and mechanisms in both sexes. To further validate potential contributions of FoxP1 to pathways identified in this study, putative regulation of target genes should be experimentally verified. Overall, the expression profiling data from this study provide a valuable resource for further deciphering conserved roles of FoxP1 in vocalisation (and related) behaviours in diverse species, ranging from vocal learning in songbirds to speech and language in humans.

Conclusion

The data from this chapter suggest that, despite large interindividual and group-based differences in gene expression, the contributions of *FoxP1* to the regulation of specific pathways show some intriguing overlaps across the targeted brain regions and ages during treatment. The knockdown target itself, *FoxP1*, was the only individual gene to show significantly different expression across all the groups studied. However, analyses of differentially expressed genes with respect to enrichment of GO terms, gene sets and local networks identified a number of processes that had been previously associated directly or indirectly to FoxP1. Highlighted pathways include retinoic acid signaling or SLIT-ROBO signaling. A significant number of differentially expressed genes overlapped between this research and a study on striatal gene expression in FoxP1 knockout mice. Further, differentially expressed genes identified in this chapter overlap with databases on genes implicated in autism spectrum disorders or intellectual disability which are both associated with human FOXP1 mutations. Taken together, the results from this study can contribute to the

understanding of downstream effects which are influenced by *FoxP1* across different species and may also help to understand the molecular underpinnings of vocal learning at the basis of human speech and language.

Appendix Chapter 4

Supplementary Table 1: Samples contributing to this analysis where sufficient RNA was obtained for RNAseq analyses. Individual bird ID encodes treatment group, target area, age group and hemisphere RNA was obtained from. shRNA type identifies the shRNA which was virally transduced in each bird. Batch date corresponds to the date each virus batch was produced and Seq. batch indicates the batch in which each sample was sent for total RNA sequencing.

Supplementary Table 2: Normalised read counts of all mapped genes across all samples of this study [access via: https://doi.org/10.17026/dans-xux-y5ja].

Supplementary Table 3: Differentially expressed genes for all subgroups of this study [access via: https://doi.org/10.17026/dans-zg3-qvba].

Supplementary Table 4: Extended list of enriched GO terms and local clusters based on significantly upregulated genes in adult CMM knockdowns [access via: https://doi.org/10.17026/dans-zr3-eutj].

Supplementary Table 5: Gene set enrichment analyses data for all subgroups of this study based on GSEA 4.11 [access via: https://doi.org/10.17026/dans-23p-7626].

Supplementary Table 6: Differentially expressed genes across all subgroups of this study that overlap with a previous study by Araujo et al. (2015) [access via: https://doi.org/10.17026/dans-2bj-ks3v].