1 The Genetic Architecture of Larval Aggregation Behavior in

2 **Drosophila**

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8 Abstract

9	Many insect species exhibit basal social behaviors such as aggregation, which
10	play important roles in their feeding and mating ecologies. However, the
11	evolutionary, genetic, and physiological mechanisms that regulate insect
12	aggregation remain unknown for most species. Here, we used natural populations
13	of Drosophila melanogaster to identify the genetic architecture that drives larval
14	aggregation feeding behavior. By using quantitative and reverse genetic
15	approaches, we have identified a complex neurogenetic network that plays a role
16	in regulating the decision of larvae to feed in either solitude or as a group. Results
17	from single gene, RNAi-knockdown experiments show that several of the
18	identified genes represent key nodes in the genetic network that determines the
19	level of aggregation while feeding. Furthermore, we show that a single non-
20	coding SNP in the gene CG14205, a putative acyltransferase, is associated with
21	both decreased mRNA expression and increased aggregate formation, which
22	suggests that it has a specific role in inhibiting aggregation behavior. Our results
23	identify, for the first time, the genetic components which interact to regulate
24	naturally occurring levels of aggregation in D. melanogaster larvae.

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Keywords: Drosophila melanogaster; fruit fly; vinegar fly; foraging; sociality

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28 Introduction:

29 Group formation is one of the simplest forms of social interaction exhibited by 30 individual animals. Yet, the genetic and physiological mechanisms underlying group 31 formation are largely unknown for most species. Drosophila melanogaster larvae form 32 simple cooperative group aggregates while feeding, which has been hypothesized to 33 increase their fitness by providing defense against predation, as well as enabling 34 individuals to communally digest food substrates more easily (Prokopy & Roitberg, 35 2001; Sokolowski, 2010; Wu et al., 2003). Previous studies have suggested that in 36 Drosophila and several other insect species, the formation and maintenance of larval 37 aggregation is primarily regulated by the chemosensory detection of aggregation 38 pheromones, as well as other sensory modalities (Leonhardt et al., 2016; Louis & de 39 Polavieja, 2017; Rooke et al., 2020; Steiger & Stokl, 2017; Symonds & Wertheim, 40 2005; Thibert et al., 2016). Specifically, in Drosophila melanogaster, at least two 41 pheromones produced by larvae have been shown to act as chemoattractants (Mast et 42 al., 2014). However, the downstream neural and genetic pathways that regulate larval 43 aggregation behavior remain largely unexplored.

44 To optimize fitness, the decision of individual larvae on whether to aggregate 45 while feeding is likely regulated by the interplay between attractive and repulsive 46 signals directly emitted by other conspecifics, or indirectly via feeding-related chemical 47 changes of the consumed food. Indeed, it has been shown that food patch choice is 48 influenced by the presence of other larvae, and the decision to choose one food patch 49 over another is a function of group size (Durisko & Dukas, 2013; Lihoreau et al., 2016) 50 and genetics (Allen et al., 2017; Fitzpatrick et al., 2007; Kaun, Hendel, et al., 2007; 51 Kaun, Riedl, et al., 2007). However, although some conserved peptidergic signaling 52 pathways have been shown to regulate aggregation in Drosophila larvae (Wu et al.,

53 2003), most signals and downstream neuronal and genetic pathways that regulate group
54 size via attractive and repulsive signals, remain unknown.

55 Understanding the genetic architecture that underlies insect aggregation is 56 important not only for deciphering the biological principles that drive social decision 57 making in general, but would provide insight into means of offsetting the economic 58 impact of insect pests. To address this important question, we used the Drosophila 59 Genetic Reference Panel (DGRP) (Mackay et al., 2012) to identify genetic variations 60 associated with the extent of larval feeding aggregate size. By combining a genome-61 wide, quantitative genetics approach with single gene manipulations, we have identified 62 several key genes that contribute to group size in natural populations of Drosophila 63 larva. Our results highlight the utility of D. melanogaster for understanding the genetics 64 of group formation and provide several genetic targets for further research on this topic.

65 Materials and Methods:

66 Animals

67 All fly lines were reared on standard corn syrup-soy food (Achron Scientific), and kept 68 under a 12h:12h light:dark schedule at 25 °C and 60% humidity. Lines from the 69 Drosophila Genetic Reference Panel (DGRP) (Mackay et al., 2012) used in this study 70 are available from the Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center (BDSC, Bloomington, 71 IN). UAS-RNAi lines and the elav- and tubulin-GAL4 lines were from either the 72 Bloomington Drosophila Stock Center or the Vienna Drosophila Resource Center 73 (VDRC) (Dietzl et al., 2007; Perkins et al., 2015). All fly lines used in this study, along 74 with their stock numbers and genotypes, are listed in Table S1.

75 Larval aggregation assays

76	Larval aggregation was assayed as follows. Approximately 30, second/third instar
77	larvae were collected from standard vials using a 15% sucrose solution (w/v). Larvae
78	were placed onto the center of a 60mm petri dish containing 20% apple juice (v/v) and
79	1% agar (w/v) en masse and allowed to roam the plate freely for 15 minutes.
80	Subsequently, a picture of the plate was taken (Figure 1A), and the fraction of
81	aggregating larvae was calculated as described below. All behavioral assays were
82	conducted at 25 °C and 70 % humidity.
83	Larval groups were defined as an "aggregate" if two or more larvae were both
84	(i) in physical contact with one another and (ii) burrowing into the agar plate. To
85	calculate the fraction of larvae that were aggregating, we summed the number of larvae
86	forming aggregates and divided it by the total number of larvae observable from the
87	picture taken at the end of the test period.

88 Genome Wide Association Study

89 A total of 4-9 behavioral assays were conducted for each DGRP line, and the mean 90 proportion of aggregating larvae was used for comparison in a genome wide association 91 study (GWAS). A linear regression model was run using the easyGWAS server (Grimm 92 et al., 2017), with default parameters, to search for genotype by phenotype associations. 93 A total of 2,370,987 SNPs from each of 48 DGRP lines were included in the GWAS, 94 after filtering out any SNPs that were of the same genotype across all lines. Linkage 95 disequilibrium and minor allele frequencies (MAF) were calculated using PLINK 96 (Purcell et al., 2007).

97 Gene Networks

98 GeneMANIA was used to predict a functional gene interaction network for all genes

99	identified in the initial GWAS containing SNPs with a p-value of less than $10^{-4.5}$
100	(Warde-Farley et al., 2010). A gene was said to contain a SNP if the SNP occurred
101	within ± 500 base pairs of its coding exons as annotated in the <i>Drosophila</i> reference
102	genome (version 5.57, FB2014 03). Subsequently, co-expression, co-localization,
103	shared protein domains, and protein-protein interactions were used to calculate the gene
104	interaction network, and up to 20 genes that were not identified as significant in the
105	GWAS were allowed to be added to the network. Genes added to the network were
106	selected such they maximized the number of connections between genes already present
107	in the network (Warde-Farley et al., 2010).

108 Gene Ontology Analysis

109 Genes containing SNPs with a p-value of less than $10^{-4.5}$ were screened for functionally-

110 enriched gene ontologies using the bioprofiling.de servers ProfCom framework

111 (Antonov et al., 2008). All genes included in the functional gene interaction network

112 were also screened for functionally enriched gene ontologies using GeneMANIA

113 (Warde-Farley et al., 2010). The gene interaction network included 20 additional genes

114 that did not contain significant SNPs; the GO terms found to be associated with this

115 network are therefore more general to a set of genes commonly found to interact with

116 one another, rather than those specifically identified in the GWAS.

117 Real Time qRT-PCR

mRNA was collected from groups of 10 whole larvae (n=3-4 replicates per line) using Trizol (ThermoFisher) and reverse transcribed to cDNA using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (ThermoFisher). Sybr Green (ThermoFisher) was used to amplify and quantify expression levels for all genes containing significant SNPs identified in the GWAS. Expression values were calculated relative to the *rp49* control gene using the

- 123 delta delta Ct method, as we have previously described (Hill et al., 2017; Lu et al.,
- 124 2012; Vernier et al., 2019). All qPCR primers used in this study are listed in Table S2.

125 CG14205-GAL4 Transgenic Flies

- 126 An approximately 3 kbp (X:19590171–19593107) region of the CG14205 promoter was
- 127 synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc (IDT) and placed into the pUCIDT-
- 128 ampR plasmid (IDT). We subcloned this region into the pENTR-1A plasmid
- 129 (ThermoFisher) using KpnI and XhoI restriction sites on either side of the promoter,
- 130 and then used Gateway cloning (ThermoFisher) to move the promoter into the
- 131 pBPGAL4.2::p65 plasmid (Addgene #26229) (Pfeiffer et al., 2010). This plasmid was
- 132 subsequently injected into BDSC line #24483 (RainbowGene Inc.), and positive
- 133 offspring were identified and back-crossed into w^{1118} . The CG14205-GAL4 line was
- 134 crossed with *UAS-mCD8::GFP* (BDSC #32188) and imaged in third-instar larvae.

135 Results

136 Genetic variation underlying group formation

- 137 As *D. melanogaster* larvae develop, they exhibit a gradual increase in aggregation
- 138 behavior (Wu et al., 2003). However, the overall genetic architecture that drives the
- 139 quantitative aspects of larval aggregation remains largely unknown. Therefore, to better
- 140 understand the genetics underlying aggregation, we screened 48 randomly chosen
- 141 isogenic wild type lines from the *Drosophila* Genetic Reference Panel (DGRP)
- 142 (Mackay et al., 2012) for levels of aggregation in third instar larvae and subsequently
- 143 performed a genome wide association study (GWAS) to look for genetic variation
- 144 associated with this phenotype.

145	We found that different lines varied significantly in the extent of aggregation,
146	with some lines tending not to form any aggregates (termed "Low" lines) and other
147	lines containing as many as 40-60% of aggregating larvae (termed "High" lines) (Figure
148	1). We then ran ANOVAs to search for genetic variation (SNPs) associated with the
149	mean fraction of aggregating larvae across lines (Shorter et al., 2015; Swarup et al.,
150	2013). A total of 2,370,987 ANOVAs were run for each unfiltered SNP in the 48 DGRP
151	lines analyzed, which uncovered 58 significant SNPs ($p < 10^{-5}$). Subsequently, 17
152	protein coding genes that fall within 500 bp of these SNPs were further considered as
153	candidate genes that might be playing a role in larval aggregation decisions (Figure 2,
154	Table S3).

155 The neurogenetic network of larval aggregation behavior

156 To investigate whether specific genetic pathways might be playing a role in larval 157 aggregation decisions, we next used gene ontology (GO) analyses. Because our initial 158 conservative $p < 10^{-5}$ significance threshold yielded only 17 protein-coding genes that 159 might be causally associated with levels of aggregation, we used the less conservative 160 threshold of $p < 10^{-4.5}$, which increased the number of candidate genes to 68. This 161 analysis indicated that this gene list is enriched for the GO terms "Axon guidance" 162 (GO:0007411, p=0.01) and "Plasma membrane" (GO:0005886, p=0.01). To further 163 expand the analysed gene network, we next extended the empirically defined gene 164 network by using the following edges: co-expression, co-localization, shared protein 165 domains, and protein-protein interactions (Supplemental Figure 1A). GO analysis of the 166 extended gene list was still enriched for "Axon guidance"; however, four out of the top 167 six enriched GO terms are neural-tissue specific (Supplemental Figure 1B). Together, 168 these data suggest that at least some of the genetic variations we have identified impact

169 population level phenotypic variations in aggregation decisions via neuronal functions.

170 Genetic variations associated with mRNA expression levels

171	Single nucleotide polymorphisms falling within promoter and enhancer regions of a
172	protein coding gene often affect mRNA expression levels (Khurana et al., 2016; Nord &
173	West, 2020; Visel et al., 2009). Since most of the SNPs we have identified in our
174	GWAS are either intronic or fall upstream of their associated genes (37/46; Table S3),
175	we next tested the hypothesis that some of the identified SNPs affect gene action via
176	their effects on mRNA expression levels. To test this hypothesis, we compared the
177	mRNA expression levels of each of the 17 candidate genes identified in our initial
178	conservative screen between the three phenotypically highest ("High") and three lowest
179	("Low") aggregating DGRP lines (Figure 3A, and B) by using real-time qRT-PCR
180	analyses. We found that at least one SNP (X:19488026) was significantly associated
181	with higher mRNA expression levels of its parent gene, CG14205, in all "low" lines
182	relative to all "high" lines (one-way ANOVA; $F(1,4) = 13.43$, $p = 0.02$) (Figure 3).
183	These results suggest that this specific SNP is playing a role in regulating the expression
184	or stability of the CG14205 mRNAs. The location of this SNP immediately downstream
185	of a predicted splice donor site in the annotated intron 5 of CG14205 (Figure 3C)
186	suggests that it may affect splicing and/ or stability of the pre-mRNA. Furthermore, we
187	found a significant interaction between $CG14205$ expression level and SNP genotype on
188	the levels of aggregation between High and Low lines (two-way ANOVA; $F(2,3) =$
189	403.3, $p < 0.01$). As CG14205 expression is significantly higher in Low lines than in
190	High lines, these data suggest that higher expression levels of CG14205 may reduce
191	aggregation in D. melanogaster larvae.

192	Although the biological functions of $CG14205$ are unknown, the protein is
193	predicted to be membrane bound Acyltransferase 3 (IPR002656) that is related to the
194	Nose resistant-to-fluoxetine (NRF) protein family in C. elegans (Choy & Thomas,
195	1999). Since several family members have been found to be expressed in the gut
196	epithelium of worms, it has been hypothesized that they may function as novel
197	transporters of lipophilic molecules (Choy et al., 2006). However, the specific
198	biochemical functions of these membrane-bound acyltransferases remain
199	uncharacterized. Nevertheless, previous studies in the moth Bombyx mori, have shown
200	that various acyltransferases are required for the synthesis of sex pheromones in moths
201	and other insects (Ding et al., 2016; Mengfang Du et al., 2015; M. Du et al., 2012).
202	Further, a quantitative trait locus (QTL) associated with intra- and interspecific
203	variations in sex pheromones in noctuid moths has been mapped to the regulation of a
204	gene containing a putative Acyltransferase 3 domain (Groot et al., 2013). Therefore, it is
205	possible that CG14205 plays a direct role in the synthesis of larval aggregation
206	pheromones in D. melanogaster.

207 Candidate gene knockdown leads to altered levels of aggregation

208 To further establish a causal role for the genes identified in our initial screen, we studied

209 the effects of neuronal-specific RNAi knockdown of each gene by using the pan-

210 neuronal *elav-GAL4* driver. However, neuronal knockdown of five of the 17 genes we

211 examined (*Vha36-1*, *dsx-c73a*, *pros*, *cindr*, and *CG45002*) was lethal. Of the remaining

212 12 genes, neuronal knockdown of knockdown of four of the genes (CG8187, CG14502,

213 CG32206, and rn) lead to higher levels of aggregation relative to controls (Figure 4A,

B, and **C**). These results suggest that the activity of these four genes affects aggregation

215 decisions in feeding larvae.

216 In contrast, knockdown of CG14205 in neural tissues did not significantly alter 217 aggregation levels. Given the strong association between the specific CG14205 alleles, 218 mRNA expression levels, and aggregation levels, we next tested whether genetic 219 variation in this specific gene affect aggregation decision via its action in non-neuronal 220 tissues by using the ubiquitous tubulin-GAL4 driver to knockdown CG14205 in all 221 tissues. As CG14205 mRNA is expressed to a greater extent in Low aggregating lines, 222 we hypothesized that knocking down CG14205 should lead to increased levels of 223 aggregation. Indeed, global CG14205 knockdown resulted in an increase in the fraction 224 of larvae aggregating (one-tailed, Student's T-test, p = 0.025; Figure 4D). These results suggest that CG14205 functions to suppress aggregation in D. melanogaster larvae via 225 226 neuronal-independent signalling pathways in the larval midgut.

227 While we do not know yet how the midgut activity levels of CG14205 might 228 affect the decision of individual larvae to join a group, it is likely that this decision 229 controlled by both external sensory stimuli and internal receptors which detect those 230 stimuli. It is possible that the CG14205 gene is responsible for the biosynthesis or 231 release of a sensory stimulus which inhibits larvae from interacting with one another 232 and forming groups. This hypothesis is consistent with the fact that CG14205 is 233 required in non-neuronal cells for maintaining normal levels of larval aggregation 234 (compared to controls). Further, mining the FlyExpress and Flygut databases revealed 235 that the expression of CG14205 is enriched in enterocytes in the larval midgut (Buchon 236 et al., 2013; Celniker et al., 2009) (Figure 5A-B). This expression pattern was further 237 confirmed by imaging the transgenic expression of GFP under the control of the 238 CG14205 promoter, which revealed strong expression in the most proximal and distal 239 parts of the midgut (Figure 5C-H). Together, these results suggest that CG14205 plays a

240 role in the synthesis or release, rather than detection, of an inhibitory molecule

241 regulating aggregation.

242 **Discussion**

243 It is often assumed that group and social behaviors arise via complex interactions 244 between many genes. Here, we have used an unbiased behavioral quantitative genetic 245 screen to identify population-level natural genetic variations that underlie aggregation in 246 D. melanogaster larvae. As expected, our analysis revealed that the decision of 247 individuals on whether to aggregate with other conspecifics is likely depended on a 248 complex genetic network that acts in both neuronal and non-neuronal tissues. 249 Furthermore, by using *in vivo* genetic manipulations, we show that at the population 250 level, both qualitative and quantitative variations could be causally associated with the 251 overall observed behavioral variations between individuals. However, whether the 252 specific identified genes exert their impact on aggregation via a common pathway, and 253 the exact cellular and physiological processes affected by these genes, remain unknown. 254 Specifically, we found that quantitative expression variations across different 255 alleles of the CG14205 gene, which encodes a putative acetyl transferase, are strongly 256 associated with larval aggregation while feeding; DGRP lines that exhibit low levels of 257 aggregation express higher levels of *CG14205* transcripts relative to those that display 258 high levels of aggregation (Figure 3B). These data suggest that the activity of CG14205 259 inhibits the formation of larval aggregates. While the mechanism regulating this 260 variation in transcript levels is not known, the SNP identified in our initial GWAS 261 screen is adjacent to a predicted intronic splice donor site (Figure 3C), which may affect 262 mRNA splicing and/ or stability via posttranscriptional processes. How CG14205 263 activity in the gut might regulate larval aggregation remains unknown. Although our 264 RNAi knockdown studies indicate that CG14205 is not specifically required in neurons,

265 it remains a possibility that it influences larval behavior via its action in glia or the 266 endocrine system. Alternatively, this gene could be required for the production of a 267 chemical signal that modulates larval aggregation decisions via the enzymatic 268 modification of gut metabolites (Blomquist et al., 2010; Chiu et al., 2019; Hunt & 269 Borden, 1990). 270 Recent studies have identified both specific chemical cues-pheromones-and 271 receptors to be required for directing aggregation behaviors in *D. melanogaster* larvae 272 (Mast et al., 2014). Although most of what is known about pheromone synthesis in 273 Drosophila and other insects relates to cuticular hydrocarbons production by fat-body 274 cells and the oenocytes (Makki et al., 2014; Wicker-Thomas et al., 2015; Zelle et al.,

275 2019), our data indicate that gut derived metabolites can also possibley act as

276 pheromones in *Drosophila*. The possible contribution of *CG14205* to pheromone

277 synthesis is further supported by previous findings about the contribution of

acyltransferases to pheromonal signalling in other insect species (Ding et al., 2016;

279 Zhang et al., 2017). Therefore, it is possible that this enzyme functions in the production

280 of some inhibitory chemical cues that Drosophila larvae are responsive to during

281 feeding.

Previous studies by us and others have shown that pheromone-driven social interactions in Drosophila and other insects often require the balancing action of both attractive and repulsive cues (Allison & Cardé, 2016; Ben-Shahar et al., 2010; Blomquist & Vogt, 2003; Lu et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2014; McKinney et al., 2015; Zelle et al., 2019). However, in our study, the knockdown of all identified candidate genes leads to increased levels of larval aggregation, which suggest that the primary contributions of these genes are to suppression of aggregation. One possible

289 interpretation of these data is that in natural populations of *D. melanogaster*, it may be

290	that it is more beneficial for larvae to supress aggregation as a function of density to
291	maximize larval fitness. Another non-mutually exclusive explanation might be that our
292	lab assay conditions, and the specific behavioral paradigm used, biased our screen
293	towards the identification of genes whose role contributes specifically to the
294	suppression of larval aggregation.
295	Nevertheless, our study has uncovered several novel genes involved in directing
296	social aggregation while feeding in Drosophila larvae. Although we do not know yet

- the specific molecular and cellular mechanisms by which any of these genes affect
- 298 larval feeding behaviors, our data further indicate that natural genetic polymorphisms
- 299 affect larval social feeding behaviors via both neuronal and non-neuronal pathways
- 300 (Allen et al., 2017; Anreiter et al., 2017; Sokolowski, 2010).

301 Disclosure statement

302 The authors declare there are no conflicts of interest.

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503 Figures

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504 Figure 1: Variation in levels of aggregation between natural populations of

505 **Drosophila.** (A) An image of a DGRP line (Line 75) that showed low levels of

- 506 aggregation, and **(B)** an image of a DGRP line (Line 101) that showed high levels of
- 507 aggregation. White arrowheads point to groups of aggregating larvae. (C) Boxplots
- 508 showing the fraction of aggregating larvae for each of the 48 DGRP lines that were
- 509 included in the GWAS (n=5–9 replicates per line); outliers are shown with open circles.
- 510 DGRP lines with either low (Low) or high (High) levels of aggregation that were used
- 511 in subsequent analyses are labeled and shown in either light or dark blue, respectively.

512 Figure 2: A genome-wide association study identified 58 SNPs that were associated

513 with the extent of larval aggregation across DGRP lines. (A) Manhattan plot

514 showing transformed p-values for each of the SNPs included in the GWAS. SNPs with

515 a p-value less than 10–5 (shown by the dashed gray line) were retained for further

516 analysis and are outlined in red. (B) A higher resolution view of SNPs highlighted in

517 (A). (Top) Transformed p-values and (Middle) minor allele frequencies (MAFs) for

each of the retained SNPs. SNPs that fell within ± 500 base pairs of the coding region of

520 genes on both the plus and minus strand of DNA and are labelled accordingly. (Bottom)

a gene are labeled and highlighted together. Some SNPs fell within the coding region of

521 Linkage disequilibrium matrix between all of the retained SNPs.

522 Figure 3: mRNA expression analysis of SNP-containing genes in lines with either

523 low or high levels of aggregation. (A) Relative mRNA expression levels for each of

- 524 the SNP-containing genes identified in the GWAS (n=3–4 replicates per line). Low
- 525 aggregating lines are shown in light blue, and High aggregating lines are shown in dark
- 526 blue. (B) Relative mRNA expression levels for the CG14205 gene. A significant

527	association between SNP genotype and $CG14205$ mRNA expression was identified (p
528	< 0.05; one-way ANOVA), whereby Low aggregating lines had higher levels of
529	expression than High aggregating lines. Note that Low and High lines segregated by
530	genotype, as shown in (C). (C) Transformed p-values for associations (ANOVAs)
531	between specific SNP haplotypes and relative mRNA expression level of the gene
532	associated with that SNP. SNPs falling within the same gene are labeled and highlighted
533	together, and SNPs which were significantly associated ($p < 0.05$) with mRNA
534	expression of its gene are outlined in red. (D) Genetic architecture of the CG14205 gene
535	and the DNA sequences surrounding the significantly associated SNP for each of the
536	Low and High DGRP lines. Note that the SNP, X:19488026 (denoted by a red arrow
537	head), falls just past the exon-intron boundary within intron 5 and is positioned to
538	potentially effect mRNA splicing.
539	Figure 4: Neuronal knockdown of some candidate genes leads to altered
540	aggregation behavior. (A) Pan-neuronal RNAi-mediated knockdown of SNP-
541	associated genes (UAS-RNAi lines from the Vienna Drosophila Resource Center).
	8 (1)
542	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, <i>p</i> < 0.05), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, <i>p</i> < 0.05), <i>CG32206</i>
542 543	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or <i>rn</i> (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of
542543544	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or <i>rn</i> (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All
542543544545	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or rn (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All statistical comparisons used one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukeys HSD <i>post-hoc</i>
 542 543 544 545 546 	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or rn (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All statistical comparisons used one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukeys HSD <i>post-hoc</i> test. (B) Pan-neuronal RNAi-mediated knockdown of SNP-associated genes (UAS-
 542 543 544 545 546 547 	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or rn (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All statistical comparisons used one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukeys HSD <i>post-hoc</i> test. (B) Pan-neuronal RNAi-mediated knockdown of SNP-associated genes (UAS-RNAi lines from the Bloomington TRiP collection). Knockdown of <i>Dnah3</i> using <i>elav</i> -
 542 543 544 545 546 547 548 	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or rn (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All statistical comparisons used one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukeys HSD <i>post-hoc</i> test. (B) Pan-neuronal RNAi-mediated knockdown of SNP-associated genes (UAS-RNAi lines from the Bloomington TRiP collection). Knockdown of <i>Dnah3</i> using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to a decrease in fraction of larvae aggregating (n=7–17, $p < 0.01$), whereas
 542 543 544 545 546 547 548 549 	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or <i>rn</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All statistical comparisons used one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukeys HSD <i>post-hoc</i> test. (B) Pan-neuronal RNAi-mediated knockdown of SNP-associated genes (UAS-RNAi lines from the Bloomington TRiP collection). Knockdown of <i>Dnah3</i> using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to a decrease in fraction of larvae aggregating (n=7–17, $p < 0.01$), whereas no other gene knockdowns were significantly different from control (n=4–17). Pairwise
 542 543 544 545 546 547 548 549 550 	Knockdown of <i>CG8187</i> (n=5-8, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG14502</i> (n=8–9, $p < 0.05$), <i>CG32206</i> (n=7–9, $p < 0.01$), or <i>rn</i> (n=8– 9, $p < 0.01$) using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to increased levels of aggregation when compared to parental controls (n=6–19, for all other lines). All statistical comparisons used one-way ANOVA followed by a Tukeys HSD <i>post-hoc</i> test. (B) Pan-neuronal RNAi-mediated knockdown of SNP-associated genes (UAS-RNAi lines from the Bloomington TRiP collection). Knockdown of <i>Dnah3</i> using <i>elav</i> -GAL4 lead to a decrease in fraction of larvae aggregating (n=7–17, $p < 0.01$), whereas no other gene knockdowns were significantly different from control (n=4–17). Pairwise Students T-tests were run between each gene knockdown and control to look for

552 Bonferroni correction. (C) TRiP-RNAi-mediated knockdown of CG14205 in neural

553 tissues, using the *elav*-GAL4 driver, did not lead to altered aggregation (n=8 per group,

554 p > 0.05; onetailed Students T-test). (D) TRiP-RNAi-mediated knockdown of CG14205

555 in all tissues, using the *tubulin*-GAL4 driver, led to a significant increase in the fraction

of larvae aggregating compared to control (n=11-12, p=0.025; one-tailed Students T-

557 test).

558 Figure 5: Interaction network of SNP-containing genes. (A) Expression levels of

559 *CG14205* across larval tissues. Data were extracted from the FlyAtlas database. (B)

560 Expression levels of CG14205 across midgut cell types. ISC, Intestinal stem cells; EB,

561 Enteroblasts; EC, Enterocytes; EE, Enteroendocrine cells; VM, Visceral muscle. (C)

562 CG14205 expression is restricted to an anterior and posterior regions of the larval

563 midgut. Image of an intact larva expressing GFP under the control of the CG14205

564 GAL4 line. (D-F) Image of 3rd instar dissected gut: (D) Visible light image, (E) GFP

565 image, (D) Overlay. (G) High resolution confocal image of CG14205-expressing

566 anterior region (pink dashed box in E). Arrow shows GFP expression in stereotypical

567 enterocytes. (H) High resolution confocal image of CG14205-expressing posterior

568 region (blue dashed box in E).





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