

Animal Models of Autism Spectrum Disorders and Behavioral Techniques of their Examination

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Received July 23, 2015

Autism spectrum disorders constitute a significant problem in modern neurology and in neuroscience in general. At present, the incidence of such disorders is increasing, reasons for their appearance remain practically unclear, and there are no sufficiently effective treatments of these pathologies. A few animal models of autistic disorders have been developed; these models reproduce one or a few key symptoms of autism (cognitive rigidity, violations of social interactions, and qualitative disorders of communication). The respective simulations are carried out using either techniques of genetic engineering (knockout rats and mice) or early (pre- or postnatal) influences of certain environmental factors. To investigate behavioral deviations in the model animals, behavioral testing methods are used. A part of them are “classic” (e.g., the open field test, Morris water maze, T-like maze, radial maze, and Skinner’s chamber), while others have been designed specifically for models of autism. This review describes and analyzes the main methodical approaches in modeling of autism spectrum disorders in animals, and behavioral methods used in the studies of these models.

KEYWORDS: autism, autism spectrum disorders, animal models, behavioral tests.

INTRODUCTION

Autism spectrum disorders (ASD), which include autism *per se* (Kanner’s syndrome), Asperger’s syndrome, childhood disintegrative disorder, Rett’s syndrome, and nonspecific pervasive developmental disorder (atypical autism) [1], constitute one of the most urgent problems in the sphere of health care. These disorders are widespread in the modern world. In particular, in the US in 2011–2012, various ADSs were officially diagnosed in about 2% of schoolchildren [2]. It should be recognized that it is difficult in this case to adequately estimate which part of this statistic really reflects an increase in the incidence, and which part is related to “expansion” of the diagnostic criteria and/or earlier diagnostics; the latter aspects became possible during recent years [3]. A few decades ago, the diagnosis of “autism” was used only in severe cases, where a person was totally unable to communicate and to maintain independent functioning. At present, however, such terms as “autism spectrum disorders” and “extended autism phenotype” have appeared

and begun to be used to characterize much milder autism-like symptoms [4, 5].

The so-called autistic triad includes inadequate social interactions, disorders of mutual communications (the lack of drive to share interests and to indicate interesting objects for contacting subjects), and an abnormally repetitive mode of behavior combined with limited interests [6]. Depending on the concrete type of the disorder and its severity, patients can completely be separated from the outside world, unable to realize verbal communication, and unable to adapt to society and to maintain an independent mode of life (a severe form of autism). In other cases, these subjects are rather socially active and independent despite noticeable difficulties in communication (Asperger’s syndrome).

At present, there is no consensus with respect to the ASD etiology and risk factors that may cause the appearance of these disorders. There is evidence that the causes of autism are genetic, i.e. related to changes in the interaction of a number of genes and spontaneous mutations [7]. There are also indications that certain relations to prenatal effects of dangerous substances, in particular agricultural pesticides, are possible [8, 9]. It was shown that the frequency of ASD and autistic features close

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to the norm is considerably higher among brothers and sisters of autistic patients and members of their families than that within the general population [10].

About 15 to 25% of autism cases are associated with identifiable genetic disorders (with the fragile X chromosome, Rett's syndrome, neurofibromatosis, and tuberous sclerosis) and also with viral diseases, such as congenital rubella or mehaloviral pathologies [11]. It was hypothesized that the development of autism can be caused by vaccination of infants; at present, this statement, however, is not considered proven [12].

To investigate the fundamental reasons of ASD cases and to develop medication and some other methods of the control of symptoms of these disorders, animal models of autism are being developed.

ANIMAL MODELS OF AUTISM: KEY ASPECTS

According to the generally accepted point of view, a considerable part of mental processes is peculiar only to humans. This is why the full-value induction of disorders of these processes in animals, i.e., reproduction of the full clinical pattern of autism, is hardly possible. Nonetheless, there are models in which separate characteristics of ASD, namely deterioration of social (in this case, zoosocial) interaction and a repetitive mode of behavioral manifestations, are readily reproduced.

Animal models of autism can be divided into four groups [13]:

(i) animals with certain deficiencies of neuropeptide receptors, in particular those of vasopressin (Brattleboro strain of rats and mice with a zero mutation of the subtypes of vasopressin receptors [14]), oxytocin (knockout mice with the absence of oxytocin receptors [15]), and opioids (mice with a targeted deletion of μ -opioid receptors [16]);

(ii) models with the reproduction of pathological states that increase the risk of autism in people; prenatal effects of anticonvulsants, thalidomide-induced embryopathy [17], and disorders of the mechanisms of serotonin synthesis in the course of prenatal development [18, 19] belong to the respective cases;

(iii) models with neonatal impairments of the brain zones, anomalies of which are known to be present in people with autism; the respective structures are the cerebellum, amygdalar complex, or medial prefrontal cortex [20];

(iv) genetic models of autism-associated human diseases, such as the syndrome of a fragile X-chromosome [21, 22].

However, there is a quite natural question: How adequate are the above models? In these models, only certain aspects of the etiology of the respective disorders are reproduced; at the same time, autism is a multifactorial state. In animal models, we can observe manifestations associated with "human" autistic disorders, but it is difficult to identify whether these manifestations are the reasons for these disorders, their consequences, different consequences of identical reasons, or these manifestations are interconnected by some other relations. For example, disorders in the functioning of the cerebellum correlate with the ASD occurrence, but there is no causal relation in this case [23]. In addition, a few factors inducing autism symptoms in animals are absent in humans. In particular, deletion of the V1a receptor gene proposed as one of the autism models in rodents was not found in people suffering from ASD [24].

As a rule, laboratory-bred rodents, rats or mice, are used in modeling of the autistic symptoms. At the same time, the respective experiments are carried in other animals, in particular, monkeys [25, 26] and even songbirds [27]. Laboratory rodents are quite suitable for autism models, not only because their behavior has been examined in detail but also because a number of behavioral methods and ways of the influence on the state of their nervous system have been developed. For the latter purpose, chemical agents or genetic interventions are used. Rodents, according to their nature, are social beings; this is why communication disorders in these animals can be rather easily detected [28]. As a rule, such parameters as those of reactions to pheromones secreted by other animals, contacts with known or unknown individuals of the same species, social interactions, collective nesting, ultrasound vocalization, sexual and parental behaviors, territorial marking, and aggressive behavior, are taken into account in descriptions of social interaction of the animals [29–32]. Certain standardized methods of quantitative estimation of different types of behavior of rodents (aggressive, exploratory, sexual, parental, etc.) have been described in detail [33–39].

Initially, rats were mostly used as model animals; later on, most works began to be carried out on mice. Each of these species demonstrates certain advantages and disadvantages. Mice (compared

with rats) are economically “cheaper;” they require less space, food, and other costs for their keeping. In addition, a number of genetic strains of mice with certain properties (knockout and/or mutant individuals) are at present available; among these strains, there are those with manifestations of the autistic symptoms. For example, these are strains $En2^{tm1Alj/tm1Alj}$ (other identification $En2^{-/-}$) [40], BTBR [41], Shank1 [42], CNTNAP2 [43, 44], and others [45–47]). Simultaneously, examination of the function of definite brain zones is easier, under the respective conditions, in rats (because of their larger dimensions); social behavior of the rats is more clearly manifested and active.

This is why some authors propose to again concentrate attention on rats as model organisms [48]. At present, there are several lines of knockout rats that demonstrate the behavior typical of autism. For example, young *Fmr1*-knockout rats spend less time in mutual games and use fewer ultrasound signals than normal control animals [48].

Belzung et al. [13] mentioned seven models

in which two key features of ASD (disorders of social interrelations and motoric stereotypicity/cognitive rigidity) are manifested: models based on the prenatal effects of 5-methoxytryptamine (5-MT) [49] and valproic acid [50], three models of early postnatal disorders, guinea pigs of line GS [51], and rats neonatally infected by Bourne virus [52]. Eight other models were qualified in the same publication as valid ones for modeling specific symptoms of autism. The third feature of the autistic triad (disorders of social communication) is difficult to model because the specificity of the speech phenomenon typical only of humans creates definite crucial difficulties, and this aspect will be discussed below.

BEHAVIORAL TESTS FOR EXAMINATION OF ASD MODELS

For estimation of external manifestations of disorders in animal models of autism, certain

Table 1. Crucial Symptoms of Autism, Their Possible Mechanisms, and Behavioral Methods of Their Study

Social deficiency	Communication deficiency	Stereotyped and repetitive behavior, cognitive rigidity	Possible mechanisms	Behavioral methods of examination
Social interaction, social games	Olfactory labels, ultrasound vocalization (USV) produced by a female, USV induced by interaction	Motor stereotyped behavior, repeated autogrooming, restriction of research activity	Social assistance: in reactions to pain	Open field test / a cage specialized for observation / a cage for routine keeping
			Social assistance: in pseudo-sensitization to drugs	
Social familiarization Social recognition	USV induced by interaction	Motor stereotypic behavioral events	Joint training: learning in the social context	Test of repeated marble burying
		Reversive learning		Three-compartment testing set
Social familiarization	USV induced by isolation USC induced by interaction			Morris water maze / T-like maze / radial maze
				Chamber for offspring isolation
				Reproduction of USV recordings
	USV induced by fear		Social assistance in learning for fear reactions. Observation-related learning for fear	Chamber for training of a fear-related conditioned reflex
	USV induced by fear		Learning by observation; operant learning Empathy (a rat frees another rat caught in a trap)	Skinner's chamber Movement-restricting trap

According to M. Wöhr and M. L. Scattoni, 2013. [67].

behavioral test techniques are used (Table 1). Both universal classical tests (open field test, Morris water maze, T-like maze, radial maze, Skinner's chamber), and methods for detection of specific features of the autistic disorders are described below (a three-compartment device for estimation of social interaction, recording and reproduction of ultrasound signals in studies of social communication, etc.). Frequently, the animal's behavior is observed under conditions where these animals are routinely (familiarily) kept, immediately in the cages where they usually live. Combination and modification of certain techniques is expedient; this allows experimenters to provide more complete and detailed evaluation of the phenotypic manifestations in the respective models.

As a rule, a set of tests for studying animal ASD models includes techniques for examination of social behavior, cognitive flexibility, and anxiety [53]. The expedience of using estimation of the anxiety level in this context is, however, doubtful because changes in this index are not among specific characteristics of the autistic disorder. This is why it is expedient to concentrate attention on the former two directions of research, examination of the flexibility of cognitive processes and of changes in social interactions between animals.

STUDIES OF DISORDERS OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

Crowley [53], when trying to estimate the level of social interactions between animals, proposed a rather simple test. A mouse or a rat is placed into a container with additional compartments at each of the two opposite sides, and the animal can freely enter these compartments. Another animal of the same species is put in one of the compartments; this animal is tied or covered with a wire cap. Another compartment is empty. According to a choice of the tested animal, to come closer to the unfamiliar individual or to move toward the empty compartment, the predisposition of the tested animal for realization of social interaction, or, *vice versa*, its indifference to such communication or even domination of the avoidance reaction can be quantitatively estimated.

A modification of this test was proposed to provide more accurate differentiation of the phenomena of social and research behavior modification [54]. A mouse covered with the

wire cap is put in one of the compartments, while a similar cap, but with no animal, is put in the other compartment. In the case of autism, a significant interest to novel inanimate objects can be manifested; thus, it is logical to suppose that the animal can select the "mouse" compartment with no desire to communicate, but trying only to explore the cap in which the second mouse is positioned. When the tested animal spends the same time in two compartments or demonstrates a greater predisposition to the compartment with the empty cap, this is considered an identification feature of autistic behavior. Healthy mice significantly prefer their stay in the "social" compartment.

A device was developed that allowed experimenters to quantify the results of this test; the time spent by the tested animal in the "social" and "nonsocial" compartments was automatically measured [55]. This test is also used for evaluation of social recognition; in this case, after the first stage of testing, an unfamiliar mouse is put under the empty cap. As a rule, healthy animals in this situation prefer to communicate with the "stranger."

It was noted that precisely the test of social recognition was used in four of the five models with the development of autistic behavior resulting from a deficiency of certain neuropeptides [13]. The validity of this test remains, however, under doubt because autistic patients demonstrate difficulties with recognition of the persons rather rarely. The validity of estimation of the level of aggressiveness also looks doubtful, because manifestations of aggression can be enhanced, weakened, or remain with no changes in the case of autism.

In 2012, American scientists proposed another model version for studying social interaction in mice [56]. When exploring a transgene model of autism in mice (animals with an Ala56 allele of the gene *SLC6A4* of the serotonin receptor), they trained animals to return to the "home" cage via a plastic tube; after some time, an unfamiliar mouse was placed in this tube. In this case, transgenic mice more frequently interrupted their movement and tried to find some other way. It is, however, worth mentioning that such a reaction can serve, most probably, as a manifestation of social phobia and increased anxiety than that of autism *per se*. The main feature of the latter pathology is the rigidity of behavior, in particular, the predisposition to adhere to a well-defined route under all conditions.

Olfactory stimuli, in particular pheromones

secreted by animals, play crucial roles in the communication of rodents [57, 58]. Disorders in olfactory communication are characterized by the time intervals during which the animal sniffs aromatic traces left by an unfamiliar animal and according to the intensity of recognition and differentiation attempts with respect to the stimuli left by well-known and unfamiliar individuals.

Studies of the communication processes in which animals use sound and ultrasound auditory stimuli, chemical agents, gaze direction, facial expression, and postures are of high informative value. It should, however, be taken into account that facial expressions are relatively poor in rodents because their facial musculature is weakly developed. The respective studies are carried out by putting the experimental and “stimuli” animals in an open neutral arena, e.g., in that of open field test [59]. Testing can be carried out in animals of any age (beginning from the moment of termination of the baby milk-feeding period). When adult animals are tested, the duration of stay of the individual within the arena should be limited by a three- to five-min-long interval to prevent the development of aggressive behavior or attempts to establish sexual contacts; the above phenomena are not manifestations of the autistic phenotype [60].

STUDIES OF THE COGNITIVE RIGIDITY AND LIMITATION OF INTERESTS

The second crucial sign of autism is cognitive rigidity. Crowley [53] proposed to evaluate this aspect using the T-maze. The animal was first taught to find a food reward in one of the branches; then, the reward was transferred to the opposite arm. The experimenters observe how quickly the animal changes its behavior and begins to look for food in a novel place. Estimation of the rate of attenuation of the conditioned reflex after withdrawal of reinforcement and measuring the time required to find the target platform in the Morris water maze after removal of this platform are other possible approaches.

The repetitive and stereotypic mode of behavior in rodents is manifested in an excessive repetition frequency or intensity of normal behavioral manifestations, such as grooming, standing upright, shaking, spinning, jumping, etc. [32, 61, 62]. These behavioral elements are observed and recorded, as a rule, in open field test or under conditions of routine

behavior, directly in the cages where the animals are kept.

The “burying-stones” test (the so-called marble burying test) is an interesting technique used in studies of the stereotypic mode of behavior in ASD models (in particular, in *BTBR*-mutant mice) [63]. In this test, animals are put in the test arena covered with a fairly thick layer of bedding. Preliminarily, animals are adapted to the arena to weaken the stress reaction to the novelty of environment. Small pebbles, glass beads, or plastic beads are put on the bedding, and the experimenters watch how many of these objects the tested animal digs in the bedding. The reaction of burying the unknown objects is a typical manifestation of defensive behavior of rodents (mice and rats, in particular) [64]. Using its muzzle and forelimbs, the animal tries to cover the objects suspected to be unpleasant and/or dangerous by the ground or bedding material. Under wild natural conditions, these may be insects, scorpions, or snakes; under laboratory conditions, these may be stimulating shock electrodes. Objects that are not supposed to be dangerous (bits of food, small stones, glass beads) are also readily buried. In models of autistic disorders, such a behavioral pattern acquires a repetitive, obsessive character, and this can serve as a good indicator of the recurrence of behavior, which is one of the key features of ASD in humans. Initially, burying of the stones was believed to be an anxiety correlate because the intensity of these actions was considerably weakened under the action of anxiolytics (such as diazepam) [65]. At present, however, such behavior is believed to be mostly related to the novelty of objects and reflects obsessive/compulsive manifestations. This is why at present this test is considered an acceptable one in models of autistic and obsessive/compulsive disorders [66].

The modeled restriction of interests in rodents can be manifested under conditions of the test in which the animal is placed in a chamber with many burrow-like openings in the bottom and walls. Healthy rodents intensely examine different holes, sniffing them and putting the muzzle in such “burrows.” The animals manifesting autistic symptoms significantly prefer one and the same “hole” (or a few “burrows”), exploring them again and again [67].

Often when the behavior of the animal is tested in a Y-like maze, the animal is to select one of two branches, and food reinforcement is absent in both. As a rule, healthy rodents, having visited, e.g., the left arm, then go to the right one. In modeled

autism, it could be supposed that a tendency to visit one and the same arm many times should be observed. This test, however, probably characterizes the specificity of research activity and does not detect the cognitive rigidity [68].

MODELING AND RESEARCH ON THE COMMUNICATION DEFICIENCY IN ANIMALS

We have already mentioned that modeling in animals of the third component of the “autistic triad” is rather problematic because only people use speech for communication; therefore, only in humans can we observe the respective disorders of the communication phenomena. It is known, however, that animals are able to maintain communication relationships using various systems of signals. As was found, rodents (rats, mice, hamsters, gerbils, etc.) systematically use ultrasonic auditory signals for communication [59]. These signals were detected in almost all situations of social life of the rodents, in acts of familiarization, aggression, sexual behavior, and others. Thus, it was shown [69] that ultrasonic signals produced by babies that try to find the nest help their mothers to find and return them to a safe area. Upon hearing the signal, the female left the nest and went searching. However, this female did not react to anesthetized or dead babies that did not produce such signals. Ultrasonic signals of the baby mice were used [70]. When the respective record was switched on in an empty compartment of the experimental set with the nest, most of the mothers left the latter and went to the above-mentioned compartment with full absence of baby mice, stuffed animals of the respective shape, and the corresponding smell traces. Later on, analogous studies were carried out on rats. Therefore, ultrasonic vocalization (USV) probably plays a much more important role in maternal behavior of rodents than visual and olfactory stimuli.

Significant disturbances of USV, as compared with vocalization of healthy animals, are observed in models of autistic disorders. In particular, offspring of mutant mice *Shank1*^{-/-} produced fewer signals under conditions of isolation from mothers and other young animals [71]. In adult model animals, disorders of vocalizations were also obvious. Adult male mice of strains BTBRT^{T+tf/J} (BTBR), when allowed to sniff urine of females, produced fewer

ultrasound signals and left fewer aromatic tags than wild-type animals [72].

Disorders of vocalization began to be studied also in songbirds [27]. As is believed, such birds not only use vocalization for communications but also learn, special songs typical only of specific species during their life. It should be noted that only males are able to “sing” the respective songs, and their song is important in the competition for a female partner for reproduction. It is thought that mutation of one and the same gene, *FOXP2*, results in disorders of learning for speech in humans [73], vocalization in rodents [74, 75], and songs in songbirds [76]. It was shown that “switching off” of this gene resulting from the influence of lentivirus induced difficulties in learning songs [77]. As is known, songbirds learn a melody typical of their own species by repeating this song after an older bird (a “teacher”). Birds with disorders of the function of gene *FOXP2* reproduced the song incompletely or significantly distorted it. Such abnormal vocalization did not help the male bird in competition for a female. It cannot be ruled out that examination of the features of vocalization in birds can help to obtain certain information related to modeling of autism-like disorders.

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Thus, the animal models of autism, despite a number of obvious limitations and reservations, appear to be a useful tool in studying the mechanisms of ASD and in attempts to find possible ways to alleviate their symptoms. At present, such disorders are mostly modeled on laboratory rodents, rats and mice, but other animal species, songbirds in particular, begin to be used for this purpose. As a rule, formation of deficiencies of certain neuropeptides, effects of toxic agents, or genetic mutations are used in modeling of ASD. Most models are capable of representing one or two features of the “autistic triad”, but some can cover all three respective aspects.

In the studies of animal ASD models, behavioral methods, both traditional and specially developed, are used. Many techniques used are disputable and not single-valued. Nonetheless, such a direction of studies is rather important; it opens certain possibilities to obtain a significant volume of factual material necessary for successful interpretation of the mechanisms responsible for the autism phenomenon and the search for effective methods of treatment of this pathology.

This article is a review; it was not associated with any experimental studies. Therefore, the confirmation of its correspondence to the existing international ethical standards is not required.

The authors, S. V. Hrabovska and Yu. T. Salyha, confirm the absence of conflicts of any kind related to commercial or financial interests, relations with organizations or persons in any kind involved in the preparation of this material, and interrelations between the coauthors.

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