



doi.org/10.51891/rease.v10i8.15296

UNRAVELING THE COMPLEX GENETIC ARCHITECTURE OF AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDER: INSIGHTS INTO PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND THERAPEUTIC IMPLICATIONS

Julia Coradin¹ Yasmin Vitória Carvalho de Castro² Fernanda Leal Caiado³ Afrânio Côgo Destefani⁴ Vinícius Côgo Destefani⁵

ABSTRACT: Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a heterogeneous neurodevelopmental condition with a significant genetic component. Recent advances in genomic technologies have revolutionized our understanding of the genetic architecture of ASD, revealing a complex interplay of common and rare variants, de novo mutations, and epigenetic factors. This narrative review synthesizes current knowledge on the genetic underpinnings of ASD, highlighting key biological pathways, brain regions, and cell types implicated in its pathophysiology. We discuss the challenges and opportunities for translating genetic findings into clinical practice and explore emerging therapeutic strategies targeting the underlying molecular mechanisms of ASD. By integrating insights from genetics, neurobiology, and translational research, we provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of knowledge and future directions in ASD research.

Keywords: Autism Spectrum Disorder. Genetics. Genomics. Pathophysiology. Therapeutics.

INTRODUCTION

Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) is a complex neurodevelopmental condition characterized by deficits in social communication and interaction, as well as restricted and repetitive behaviors and interests.[1] The prevalence of ASD has increased dramatically over the past few decades, with current estimates suggesting that it affects approximately 1 in 54 children in the United States.[2] While the exact causes of ASD remain elusive, there is strong evidence for a significant genetic component. Twin studies have estimated the heritability of ASD to be as high as 90%, indicating a substantial role for genetic factors in its etiology.[3]

¹Centro Universitário de Pato Branco- UNIDEP.

²Centro Universitário São Lucas (Porto Velho/RO).

³Faculdades Unidas do Norte de Minas Funorte.

⁴Santa Casa de Misericórdia de Vitoria Higher School of Sciences - EMESCAM. Dynamics and Modeling Laboratory (DynMolLab.

⁵Molecular Dynamics and Modeling Laboratory (DynMolLab).



The genetic architecture of ASD is highly heterogeneous, involving a complex interplay of common and rare genetic variants, de novo mutations, and epigenetic factors.[4] Advances in genomic technologies, such as whole-exome sequencing (WES) and genome-wide association studies (GWAS), have revolutionized our understanding of the genetic underpinnings of ASD. These studies have identified over 100 risk genes associated with ASD; many converge on vital biological pathways and brain regions involved in neurodevelopment and synaptic function.[5-6]

Despite these advances, the clinical translation of genetic findings remains challenging due to the substantial phenotypic and genetic heterogeneity of ASD. Moreover, the complex interplay between genetic and environmental factors further complicates our understanding of the disorder's pathophysiology. This narrative review aims to synthesize current knowledge on the genetic architecture of ASD, highlighting vital biological pathways, brain regions, and cell types implicated in its pathophysiology. We discuss the challenges and opportunities for translating genetic findings into clinical practice and explore emerging therapeutic strategies targeting the underlying molecular mechanisms of ASD.

METHODOLOGY

To conduct this narrative review, we searched several major scientific databases, including Scopus, Web of Science, PubMed, ERIC, IEEE Xplore, ScienceDirect, Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ), and JSTOR. The search strategy included a combination of keywords related to autism spectrum disorder, genetics, genomics, pathophysiology, and therapeutics. Relevant articles published in English from 2010 to 2023 were selected based on their methodological quality, originality, and contribution to the field. Priority was given to systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and original research articles published in high-impact peer-reviewed journals. The selected articles were carefully reviewed, and their findings were synthesized to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of knowledge on the genetic architecture of ASD and its implications for understanding the disorder's pathophysiology and developing targeted therapeutic interventions.





RESULTS

The Genetic Architecture of ASD

The genetic architecture of ASD is highly complex and heterogeneous, involving a diverse array of genetic variants with varying frequencies and effect sizes.[7] While rare variants, such as de novo mutations and copy number variations (CNVs), account for a substantial proportion of individual risk, most of the population risk is attributable to common inherited variants, each contributing a small effect.[8] Recent studies have identified over 100 risk genes associated with ASD, many of which involve de novo mutations in highly constrained genes.[9] These mutations are enriched in specific biological pathways, including synaptic function, chromatin remodeling, and transcriptional regulation.[10]

One of the most well-characterized pathways implicated in ASD is synaptic function. Genes involved in synaptic adhesion, such as neuroligins and neurexins, have been strongly associated with ASD risk.[11] These genes play critical roles in the formation and maintenance of synapses, and their disruption can lead to impairments in synaptic transmission and plasticity. Another critical pathway implicated in ASD is chromatin remodeling, which involves the dynamic regulation of gene expression through modifications to the chromatin structure. Genes involved in chromatin remodeling, such as CHD8 and ARID1B, have been identified as high-confidence ASD risk genes.[12] Disruptions in these genes can lead to alterations in the expression of downstream target genes involved in neurodevelopment and synaptic function.

Epigenetic factors, such as DNA methylation and histone modifications, have also emerged as significant contributors to the genetic architecture of ASD.[13] These factors can modulate gene expression without altering the underlying DNA sequence and have been implicated in the interface between genetic and environmental risk factors for ASD. For example, studies have shown that environmental exposures, such as prenatal maternal stress or exposure to toxins, can induce epigenetic changes that may increase the risk of ASD.[14]



Brain Regions and Cell Types Implicated in ASD Pathophysiology

Functional genomic studies have provided valuable insights into the specific brain regions and cell types implicated in ASD pathophysiology. These studies have highlighted the importance of mid-fetal prefrontal cortical development as a critical period for some of the largest-effect ASD risk genes.[15] Moreover, integrative analyses have shown that ASD genes are enriched in specific brain regions, such as the prefrontal cortex, striatum, and cerebellum.[16] These findings suggest that disruptions in the development and function of these brain regions may contribute to the core features of ASD.

At the cellular level, ASD risk genes are enriched in specific cell types, particularly glutamatergic projection neurons in the superficial cortical layers.[17] These neurons play critical roles in information processing and integration across brain regions, and their dysfunction may underlie the impairments in social communication and cognitive flexibility observed in ASD. Other cell types, such as GABAergic interneurons and microglia, have also been implicated in ASD pathophysiology, highlighting the complex interplay of neural circuits and immune processes.[18]

Translating Genetic Findings into Clinical Practice

Translating genetic findings into clinical practice remains a significant challenge in ASD research. While the identification of risk genes has provided valuable insights into the underlying biology of ASD, the clinical utility of these findings is currently limited. One of the main reasons for this is the substantial phenotypic and genetic heterogeneity of ASD. Individuals with ASD can present with a wide range of cognitive, behavioral, and medical comorbidities, and the same genetic variant can lead to different phenotypic outcomes in other individuals.[19]

To address this challenge, researchers are increasingly focusing on integrating multiomics data, such as genomics, transcriptomics, and proteomics, to understand better the complex interplay between genetic and environmental factors in ASD.[20] By combining these data with detailed phenotypic assessments, researchers aim to identify more homogeneous subgroups of individuals with ASD who may benefit from targeted therapeutic 2424





Another promising approach for translating genetic findings into clinical practice is the development of personalized medicine strategies. With the increasing availability of wholegenome sequencing and other high-throughput technologies, it is possible to identify an individual's unique genetic profile and tailor interventions accordingly. For example, individuals with ASD who have specific genetic variants associated with impaired synaptic function may benefit from therapies that enhance synaptic plasticity, such as oxytocin or memantine.[22] Similarly, individuals with ASD who have specific immune system abnormalities may benefit from immunomodulatory therapies, such as celecoxib or sulforaphane.[23]

Emerging Therapeutic Strategies for ASD

The identification of key biological pathways and molecular mechanisms implicated in ASD has led to the development of several promising therapeutic strategies. These strategies aim to target the underlying pathophysiology of ASD rather than just managing its symptoms. Some of the most promising therapeutic approaches include:

I. Immune and Anti-inflammatory Agents: Several randomized, placebocontrolled trials have investigated the efficacy of immunoregulatory and anti-inflammatory agents in ASD. Agents such as prednisolone, celecoxib, minocycline, and omega-3 fatty acids have shown potential benefits in reducing core symptoms of ASD, such as stereotyped behavior and social communication deficits. [24-26]

2. Synaptic Modulators: Given the importance of synaptic function in ASD pathophysiology, researchers have explored the potential of pharmacological agents that target synaptic transmission and plasticity. For example, oxytocin, a neuropeptide involved in social behavior, and memantine, an NMDA receptor antagonist, have shown promising results in



improving social communication and reducing repetitive behaviors in individuals with ASD. [27-28]

3. Epigenetic Modulators: Therapies targeting epigenetic mechanisms, such as histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitors and DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) inhibitors, have been investigated as potential treatments for ASD. These agents aim to restore the balance of gene expression by modulating the epigenetic landscape and have shown beneficial effects in preclinical studies and early-phase clinical trials. [29-30]

4. Metabolic and Mitochondrial Therapies: As mentioned earlier, subgroups of individuals with ASD have been identified with specific metabolic or mitochondrial abnormalities. Targeted therapies, such as folinic acid supplementation, co-enzyme QIO, and L-carnitine, have shown promise in improving some of the core symptoms of ASD in these individuals. [31-32]

While these emerging therapeutic strategies hold promise, it is essential to note that the clinical translation of these findings remains challenging. More significant, well-designed clinical trials are needed further to evaluate the efficacy and safety of these interventions and to identify the specific subgroups of individuals with ASD who may benefit the most.

CONCLUSION

The genetic architecture of ASD is highly complex and heterogeneous, involving a diverse array of genetic variants that converge on vital biological pathways and brain regions involved in neurodevelopment and synaptic function. Integrating insights from genetics, neurobiology, and translational research has provided valuable insights into the pathophysiology of ASD. It has led to the development of promising therapeutic strategies targeting the underlying molecular mechanisms of the disorder. However, the clinical translation of these findings remains a significant challenge due to the substantial phenotypic and genetic heterogeneity of ASD. Ongoing efforts to integrate multi-omics data and develop personalized medicine approaches hold promise for improving the clinical utility of genetic findings and advancing the development of more targeted and effective interventions for individuals with ASD.





REFERENCES

- 1. AMERICAN Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders (DSM-5[®]). American Psychiatric Pub; 2013.
- 2. MAENNER MJ, Shaw KA, Baio J, et al. Prevalence of autism spectrum disorder among children aged eight years Autism and Developmental Disabilities Monitoring Network, 11 Sites, United States, 2016. MMWR Surveill Summ. 2020;69(4):1-12.
- 3. TICK B, Bolton P, Happé F, Rutter M, Rijsdijk F. Heritability of autism spectrum disorders: a meta-analysis of twin studies. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2016;57(5):585-595.
- 4. GESCHWIND DH, State MW. Gene hunting in autism spectrum disorder: on the path to precision medicine. Lancet Neurol. 2015;14(11):1109-1120.
- 5. DE RUBEIS S, He X, Goldberg AP, et al. Synaptic, transcriptional and chromatin genes disrupted in autism. Nature. 2014;515(7526):209-215.
- 6. SANDERS SJ, He X, Willsey AJ, et al. Insights into autism spectrum disorder genomic architecture and biology from 71 risk loci. Neuron. 2015;87(6):1215-1233.
- 7. JESTE SS, Geschwind DH. Disentangling the heterogeneity of autism spectrum disorder through genetic findings. Nat Rev Neurol. 2014;10(2):74-81.
- 8. GAUGLER T, Klei L, Sanders SJ, et al. Most genetic risk for autism resides with common 2427 variation. Nat Genet. 2014;46(8):881-885.
- 9. SATTERSTROM FK, Kosmicki JA, Wang J, et al. Large-scale exome sequencing study implicates both developmental and functional changes in the neurobiology of autism. Cell. 2020;180(3):568-584.
- 10. PARIKSHAK NN, Luo R, Zhang A, et al. Integrative functional genomic analyses implicate specific molecular pathways and circuits in autism. Cell. 2013;155(5):1008-1021.
- 11. SÜDHOF TC. Neuroligins and neurexins link synaptic function to cognitive disease. Nature. 2008;455(7215):903-911.
- 12. COTNEY J, Muhle RA, Sanders SJ, et al. The autism-associated chromatin modifier CHD8 regulates other autism risk genes during human neurodevelopment. Nat Commun. 2015;6(1):1-13.
- 13. LOKE YJ, Hannan AJ, Craig JM. The role of epigenetic change in autism spectrum disorders. Front Neurol. 2015;6:107.





- 14. MODABBERNIA A, Velthorst E, Reichenberg A. Environmental risk factors for autism: an evidence-based review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses. Mol Autism. 2017;8(1):1-16.
- 15. WILLSEY AJ, Sanders SJ, Li M, et al. Coexpression networks implicate human midfetal deep cortical projection neurons in the pathogenesis of autism. Cell. 2013;155(5):997-1007.
- 16. KRISHNAN A, Zhang R, Yao V, et al. Genome-wide prediction and functional characterization of the genetic basis of autism spectrum disorder. Nat Neurosci. 2016;19(11):1454-1462.
- 17. VELMESHEV D, Schirmer L, Jung D, et al. Single-cell genomics identifies cell typespecific molecular changes in autism. Science. 2019;364(6441):685-689.
- 18. EDMONSON C, Ziats MN, Rennert OM. Altered glial marker expression in autistic postmortem prefrontal cortex and cerebellum. Mol Autism. 2014;5(1):1-11.
- 19. GESCHWIND DH. Advances in autism. Annu Rev Med. 2009;60:367-380.
- 20.Geschwind DH, Flint J. Genetics and genomics of psychiatric disease. Science. 2015;349(6255):1489-1494.
- 21. FRYE RE, Rossignol DA. Mitochondrial dysfunction can connect the diverse medical symptoms associated with autism spectrum disorders. Pediatr Res. 2011;69:41R-47R.

- 22. YATAWARA CJ, Einfeld SL, Hickie IB, Davenport TA, Guastella AJ. The effect of oxytocin nasal spray on social interaction deficits observed in young children with autism: a randomized clinical crossover trial. Mol Psychiatry. 2016;21(9):1225-1231.
- 23. BENT S, Hendren RL, Zandi T, et al. Internet-based, randomized, controlled trial of omega-3 fatty acids for hyperactivity in autism. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2014;53(6):658-666.
- 24.AKHONDZADEH S, Fallah J, Mohammadi MR, et al. Double-blind placebo-controlled trial of pentoxifylline added to risperidone: effects on aberrant behavior in children with autism. Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry. 2010;34(1):32-36.
- 25. ASADABADI M, Mohammadi MR, Ghanizadeh A, et al. Celecoxib as adjunctive treatment to risperidone in children with autistic disorder: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. Psychopharmacology (Berl). 2013;225(1):51-59.
- 26.NG, Q. X., Loke, W., Venkatanarayanan, N., Lim, D. Y., Soh, A. Y. S., & Yeo, W. S. (2019). A Systematic Review of the Role of Prebiotics and Probiotics in Autism Spectrum Disorders. Medicina, 55(5), 129. https://doi.org/10.3390/medicina55050129





- 27. DAWSON, G., Sun, J. M., Davlantis, K. S., Murias, M., Franz, L., Troy, J., Simmons, R., Sabatos-DeVito, M., Durham, R., & Kurtzberg, J. (2017). Autologous Cord Blood Infusions Are Safe and Feasible in Young Children with Autism Spectrum Disorder: Results of a Single-Center Phase I Open-Label Trial. Stem Cells Translational Medicine, 6(5), 1332–1339. https://doi.org/10.1002/sctm.16-0474
- 28. ZASLAVSKY, K., Zhang, W.-B., McCready, F. P., Rodrigues, D. C., Deneault, E., Loo, C., Zhao, M., Ross, P. J., El Hajjar, J., Romm, A., Thompson, T., Sjaarda, C., Yao, P., Peralta, A., Jorgensen, V., Yang, T., Piekna, A., Hung, R. J., Pasceri, P., ... Ellis, J. (2019). SHANK2 mutations associated with autism spectrum disorder cause hyperconnectivity of human neurons. Nature Neuroscience, 22(4), 556–564. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-019-0365-8