A systems biology-based identification and in vivo functional 1 screening of Alzheimer's disease risk genes reveals 2 modulators of memory function 3

4 5

6

7

Adam D. Hudgins^{1*}, Shiyi Zhou^{2*}, Rachel N. Arey^{2‡}, Coleen T. Murphy^{2,3#}, Yousin Suh^{1,4#}

- 8 9 ¹Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New 10 York, NY, USA
- ²Department of Molecular Biology, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA 11
- ³LSI Genomics, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA 12
- 13 ⁴Department of Genetics and Development, Columbia University Irving Medical Center, New York, NY, USA
- 14
- 15 16
- 17 *These authors contributed equally to this work
- 18 [‡]Current Address:
- 19 Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24 25
- 26 [#]Corresponding authors:
- 27 Dr. Coleen T. Murphy
- 28 Department of Molecular Biology
- 29 LSI Genomics
- 30 Princeton University
- Princeton, NJ 08544 31
- 32 Email: ctmurphy@princeton.edu
- 33
- 34 Dr. Yousin Suh
- Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology 35
- Department of Genetics and Development 36
- 37 Columbia University Irving Medical Center
- 630 W. 168th St., New York, NY 10032 38
- 39 Tel: 212-305-6832
- 40 Email: ys3214@cumc.columbia.edu
- 41

42 Summary

43 Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have uncovered over 40 genomic loci associated with risk for late-onset Alzheimer's Disease (LOAD), but identification of the underlying causal 44 genes remains challenging. While the role of glial biology in the mediation of LOAD genetic risk 45 46 has been increasingly recognized, recent studies of induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived 47 neurons from LOAD patients have demonstrated the existence of neuronal cell-intrinsic functional defects, absent interactions with other brain cell types or exposure to neurotoxic 48 insults. Here, we searched for genetic contributions to neuronal dysfunction in LOAD 49 pathobiology, using an integrative systems approach that incorporated multi-evidence-based 50 51 gene-mapping and network analysis-based prioritization. We found widespread dysfunction in 52 neuronal gene co-expression networks in the LOAD brain and identified synaptic and 53 endolysosomal function as being specifically impacted by LOAD-associated genetic variation. A 54 systematic perturbation screening of candidate risk genes in C. elegans revealed that neuronal knockdown of the LOAD risk gene orthologs vha-10 (ATP6V1G2), cmd-1 (CALM3), amph-1 55 (BIN1), ephx-1 (NGEF), and pho-5 (ACP2) significantly alters short/intermediate-term memory 56 function, the cognitive domain affected earliest during LOAD progression. These results 57 58 highlight the impact of LOAD risk genes on evolutionarily conserved memory function, as mediated through neuronal endosomal dysfunction, and identify new targets for further 59 mechanistic interrogation. 60

61

62 Introduction

Alzheimer's Disease (AD), the most common cause of dementia, is an age-related

neurodegenerative disorder that affects millions worldwide¹. Although our understanding of the

65 molecular mechanisms underpinning the progression of AD has increased steadily over the past

66 several decades^{2,3}, the precise etiology of the disease remains elusive, and no preventative or curative treatments currently exist^{3,4}. In recent years, large consortia-based genome-wide 67 association studies (GWAS) have identified over 40 genomic loci associated with risk for 68 sporadic late-onset AD (LOAD)⁵⁻⁸, the predominant form (>90% of cases) of the disease. 69 70 However, the majority of risk variants reside in non-coding regions of the genome and are 71 enriched in cell type-specific transcriptional regulatory elements such as enhancers, suggesting that they contribute to genetic risk by altering gene expression regulatory networks^{9,10}. Yet, we 72 73 still have a limited ability to predict how non-coding variants affect cell- and tissue-specific gene 74 regulatory interactions that alter transcriptional outputs, confounding efforts to identify LOADcausal variants and target genes¹⁰⁻¹², a critical step to fully realize the promise of GWAS for 75 clinical applications. 76

77 Thus far, the genes and loci implicated in LOAD genetic risk have nominated multiple 78 pathways for disease relevance, including endosomal trafficking, cholesterol regulation, mitochondrial function, and inflammation and immunity¹³, most of which are active in multiple 79 cell types in the brain. Due to the discovery of LOAD-associated coding variation in genes such 80 as TREM2¹⁴⁻¹⁶, PLCG2^{14,17}, and ABI3¹⁴, which are predominantly expressed in microglia, 81 82 functional studies in both cell and animal models have increasingly been focused on the role of microglial biology with regard to genetic risk for LOAD and the pathways listed above¹⁸⁻²². 83 84 However, in contrast to previous work which had highlighted the importance of microgliaexpressed genes to transcriptional network dysregulation in the LOAD brain²³, a recent co-85 86 expression network study of brain RNA-seq data from a large-scale LOAD cohort found neuronspecific co-expression modules to be the most profoundly affected by disease state²⁴. 87 Additionally, in vitro studies of neuronal cultures derived from LOAD patient iPSCs have 88 demonstrated several cell-intrinsic defects in neuronal function, including hyperexcitability and 89 90 altered synapse formation dynamics, absent interactions with other cell types or exposure to

external neurotoxic insults^{25,26}. The precise mechanisms through which common genetic
variation contributes to neuronal cellular dysfunction and genetic risk for LOAD are understudied
and remain largely unknown.

94 Here, we searched for genetic contributions to neuronal dysfunction in LOAD 95 pathobiology by taking a systems biology approach. We analyzed summary statistics data from 96 a recent LOAD GWAS meta-analysis⁷ in the context of large-scale brain omics data, utilizing 1) multi-evidence-based gene-mapping; 2) transcriptome-wide correlation with clinical and 97 98 neuropathological traits and network analysis-based prioritization; and 3) in vivo functional screening to identify high-confidence neuronal genes and pathways contributing to LOAD 99 pathophysiology. We found that many candidate LOAD risk genes that are dysregulated in the 100 101 LOAD brain and more strongly correlated with clinically-assessed cognitive function and 102 dementia severity than with post-mortem assessment of neuropathological burden are central members of network modules involved in critical neuronal functions. 103

As modeling cognitive dysfunction *in vitro* presents considerable challenges, we chose 104 105 to screen our candidate genes for LOAD-relevant effects in vivo, through the use of C. elegans 106 associative memory assays, a well-established experimental paradigm of cognitive function assessment with evolutionarily conserved molecular underpinnings²⁷⁻²⁹. *C. elegans* shares 107 similarities with mammals in age-related physiological changes, including learning and memory 108 decline²⁸. Like mammals, memory loss is one of the earliest features of neuronal aging in C. 109 110 elegans^{28,30}. Furthermore, conserved molecular machinery is required in C. elegans to learn and remember^{27,28,31}. A systematic perturbation screening of candidate risk genes in *C. elegans* 111 112 revealed that neuronal knockdown of the LOAD risk gene orthologs vha-10 (ATP6V1G2), cmd-1 113 (CALM3), amph-1 (BIN1), ephx-1 (NGEF), and pho-5 (ACP2) significantly altered short/intermediate-term memory function, the cognitive domain affected earliest during LOAD 114

progression, highlighting these genes for further *in vitro* and *in vivo* evaluation as potential

116 therapeutic targets.

117

118 Results

Integrative multi-omics analysis for target gene identification and functional screening *in vivo*

To identify high-confidence target genes that underlie LOAD genetic risk and contribute to 121 122 neuronal dysfunction in LOAD pathobiology, we analyzed LOAD GWAS summary statistics⁷ in 123 the context of large-scale brain omics data, as outlined in **Fig. 1**. Our analysis framework incorporates data from large-scale brain expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL) studies 124 (PsychENCODE³², CommonMind Consortium (CMC)³³, BRAINEAC³⁴, BrainSeq³⁵, ROSMAP³⁶, 125 126 and GTEx³⁷), chromatin interaction data from various Hi-C analyses of brain and neural tissue (PsychENCODE - Dorsolateral Prefrontal Cortex (DLPFC)³², Giusti- Rodríguez et al.- Adult and 127 Fetal Cortex³⁸, and Schmitt et al. - DLPFC, Hippocampus, and Neural Progenitor Cell³⁹), and 128 RNA-seq data from a cohort of 364 brains from the Mount Sinai Brain Bank (MSBB)⁴⁰, a 129 130 recently generated resource made publicly available as part of the Accelerating Medicines 131 Partnership-Alzheimer's Disease Consortium (AMP-AD). A key strength of our approach is the 132 use of the C. elegans short/intermediate-term associative memory assay as an organismal level 133 readout of the relevance of our prioritized candidate genes to neuronal circuit integrity and function. 134

135

136 LOAD GWAS variants are enriched in neuronal open chromatin regions

137 Previous studies have shown that LOAD SNP heritability is specifically enriched in 138 transcriptional regulatory elements active in microglia⁴¹⁻⁴⁴, findings which have contributed to the recent focus on microglial biology in LOAD functional genomics studies. While clearly important 139 140 to genetic risk for LOAD, this microglial enrichment does not explain the dysfunctional 141 phenotypes observed in LOAD patient iPSC-derived neurons^{25,26}. To test for the presence of 142 LOAD GWAS signal⁷ in neuronal transcriptional regulatory elements, we used single-cell open chromatin profiles generated from the human brain by Assay for Transposase-Accessible 143 Chromatin using sequencing (scATAC-seq)⁴³, and a statistical enrichment methodology 144 employed by Wang and colleagues⁴⁵ (see Methods). We found an enrichment of LOAD GWAS 145 146 signal in the open chromatin of several neuronal cell types, over a wide range of statistical significance, from genome-wide significant (GWS) p-values ($P < 5x10^{-8}$) to a sub-GWS p-value of 147 $P=1x10^{-4}$, although the overall neuronal enrichment observed was much weaker than that seen 148 149 in microglia (Fig. 2a).

Since any enrichment of signal in the sub-GWS range could potentially be explained by 150 linkage disequilibrium (LD) with above-threshold LOAD GWAS variants⁹, we performed an 151 additional enrichment analysis after removing all variants within 1 Mb of the GWS loci. 152 153 Surprisingly, the enrichment of sub-GWS signal in neuronal open chromatin regions was significantly strengthened, a result observed for all neuronal subtypes in the scATAC-seq 154 155 dataset, including both excitatory and inhibitory neurons (Fig. 2a). In comparison, the same analysis using scATAC-seq data from the human lung⁴⁶ did not show enrichment in the open 156 157 chromatin of lung cell types (Supplemental Fig. 1a). This result indicates that sub-threshold 158 LOAD GWAS loci likely harbor causal non-coding risk variants in transcriptional regulatory elements active in neurons, which may lead to the dysregulation of causal risk genes underlying 159 the dysfunction observed in LOAD patient iPSC-derived neurons. Thus, for our integrative 160 161 approach outlined in **Fig. 1** we chose to include loci which reached a suggestive significance

threshold of $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$, in addition to GWS loci, as this approach has been successfully used for post-GWAS gene mapping^{45,47-49}.

164

165 eQTL and chromatin interaction data indicate potential causal genes in LOAD GWAS loci

166 Increasing evidence suggests that the gene nearest to the most significant variant in a GWAS loci is often not the causal gene⁵⁰⁻⁵³. To identify and prioritize candidate causal LOAD risk 167 genes, we incorporated functional genomics data with summary statistics from the recent LOAD 168 GWAS meta-analysis conducted by Jansen and colleagues⁷ using the web-based platform 169 Functional Mapping and Annotation (FUMA)⁵⁴ (see Methods). We selected genes which were 170 nominated by eQTL³²⁻³⁷ or chromatin interaction data^{32,38,39} (Fig. 1) and disregarded genes that 171 172 were only implicated through positional mapping. These datasets expand upon those used for gene-mapping in the original Jansen et al. study⁷, incorporating two more eQTL studies 173 (PsychENCODE³² and BrainSeg³⁵), and two additional Hi-C studies (PsychENCODE³² and 174 175 Giusti- Rodríguez et al.- Adult and Fetal cortex³⁸). In addition, we included those genes that contained protein-coding variants in LD ($r^2 > 0.8$) with the tag variant at each LOAD GWAS 176 locus. This strategy nominated 1,630 coding and non-coding genes, in 29 GWS and 71 sub-177 178 GWS loci, as candidate causal LOAD risk genes (Fig 2c, Supplemental Table 1). The majority 179 of mapped genes were protein-coding, with IncRNAs and pseudogenes making up the next two largest categories, in roughly equal proportions in both GWS and sub-GWS loci (Fig. 2c). 180

More candidate risk genes were mapped by variant-promoter chromatin interactions (n=1,353) than by eQTL evidence (n=542). In total, 282 genes (17%) were supported by both eQTL and chromatin interaction evidence (**Fig. 2b**). The PsychENCODE and the Adult and Fetal cortex Hi-C data provided most of the chromatin interaction-implicated genes (**Supplemental Fig. 2a, Supplemental Table 2**), and the majority of cis-eQTL-associated genes came from the PsychENCODE, GTEx, and CMC datasets (Supplemental Fig. 2b,
Supplemental Table 3). Using human single-cell transcriptome data from the temporal
cortex^{32,55,56}, we examined the expression patterns of the protein-coding candidates (n=957) and
found ubiquitous expression across cell types for many genes, but higher levels of expression
for most of the risk genes in neurons and astrocytes, in comparison to that of microglia,
oligodendrocytes, oligodendrocyte precursors, and endothelial cells (Fig. 2d).

Of particular interest is the CELF1/SPI1 locus (11p11.2), which did not reach GWS in the 192 Jansen et al. study⁷ but has been found as GWS in several previous LOAD GWAS^{5,6,8} (Fig. 2e). 193 Previous work has implicated *SPI1* as the causal gene in the locus⁵⁷ based on the data from 194 microglia. However, whether or not SPI1 is the only causal gene in the locus, and microglia are 195 196 the only causal cell type, remains unclear. Overlaying the locus with recently generated brain cell type-specific epigenomic annotation data⁴², we found that the region of LOAD association is 197 198 rich with regulatory elements that are active in several cell types, including dense clusters of neuronal enhancers (Fig. 2e). Our integrated analysis including eQTL and chromatin interaction 199 data implicates almost all (n=29) of the protein-coding genes in the CELF1/SPI1 locus as 200 candidate causal LOAD risk genes (Fig. 2e), highlighting the challenges in identifying the true 201 202 causal genes and relevant cell types underlying GWAS associations and the need for further prioritization and functional screening. 203

204

Prioritized LOAD risk genes are co-expression network hubs dysregulated in the LOAD brain.

To determine the potential relevance of our candidate risk genes to the transcriptional
 alterations occurring in the LOAD brain, we performed weighted gene co-expression network
 analysis (WGCNA)⁵⁸ on RNA-seq data from a cohort of 364 brains from the Mount Sinai Brain

210 Bank (MSBB)⁴⁰. Samples from this cohort span a wide spectrum of LOAD-related

211 neuropathological and cognitive disease severities; and RNA-seq data exists for 4 brain regions: Brodmann area 10 (BM10) frontal pole, BM22 superior temporal gyrus, BM36 parahippocampal 212 gyrus, and BM44 inferior frontal gyrus. We focused our analyses on data from the BM36 region 213 214 (n=215) because a prior transcriptomic study of this cohort found that BM36, out of 19 sampled regions, was the most highly affected by AD⁵⁹. Using WGCNA we identified 32 distinct co-215 expression modules, 10 of which were enriched for cell type-specific gene expression 216 217 signatures: oligodendrocyte (M1, M22); neuronal (M2, M10, M25, M32); astrocyte (M23); 218 endothelial (M14, M18); microglia (M28); astrocyte/endothelial (M20); and microglia/endothelial 219 (M21) (**Fig. 3a**).

220 We utilized the spectrum of neuropathology and cognitive function present across the 221 dataset to identify significant associations between gene expression and disease severity. We 222 assessed the correlations between both the expression of individual genes, and the expression 223 of module eigengenes, and neuropathological category (CERAD), neurofibrillary tangle burden (Braak), and clinically-assessed cognitive function (CDR), as well as APOE genotype. On the 224 level of individual genes, 14,421 genes were associated with at least one trait (FDR<0.05, 225 226 **Supplemental Table 4)**, indicating large-scale rewiring of transcriptional activity in the LOAD 227 brain, with a large overlap seen between genes that were significantly correlated with CDR 228 score, CERAD neuropathological category, and Braak staging score (Fig. 3b). In contrast, 229 APOE genotype was significantly associated with relatively few genes (**Fig. 3b**). With regard to 230 module-trait correlations, we found that 26 of the 32 modules were significantly associated with 231 at least one trait (Fig. 3c). The top four modules with the strongest associations were: the 232 neuronal module M2, which was most strongly negatively associated with CDR score; the astrocyte/endothelial module M20, which was most strongly positively associated with CERAD 233 234 category; module M16, which was not enriched for any cell type-specific signature but was the

235 second-most negatively correlated with CDR score; and the endothelial module M18, which was 236 the second-most positively associated with CERAD category (Fig. 3c). Modules which were enriched for cell type-specific signatures showed a clear demarcation with respect to their 237 correlation with CERAD category, and Braak and CDR scores, with all neuronal modules having 238 239 a negative association, while astrocyte, microglia, oligodendrocyte, and endothelial modules 240 were all positively associated (Fig. 3d, Supplemental Table 5). We then assessed whether any of the modules were enriched for our candidate LOAD risk genes, considering only protein-241 242 coding genes which had a significant correlation with a trait (**Fig. 3e**). The module most 243 enriched for our candidate risk genes was M16, one of the top four trait-associated modules, 244 along with two other modules, which were also not enriched for any cell type-specific expression signature: module M19, which was negatively correlated with CDR; and module M29, which was 245 positively correlated with Braak score (Fig. 3e). 246

247 Previous findings from network-based analysis of LOAD transcriptomic data have highlighted the disease-relevance of modules representing aspects of microglia²³ and 248 oligodendrocyte⁶⁰ biology. Most recently, a co-expression network analysis of the same RNA-249 seq dataset we analyzed here, utilizing a different methodology, determined that neuronal 250 251 modules were the most significantly affected by LOAD pathobiology²⁴. A key difference and advantage of our study is the use of genetic association as the fundamental basis of our 252 253 prioritization schema, upon which we leverage network approaches to derive new insights from 254 LOAD brain transcriptome data. It has been recognized that genetically-supported drug targets 255 have a much greater chance of success in clinical trials⁶¹. By using genetics as a foundation, we 256 increase confidence in our prioritized risk genes while also increasing the probability of successful therapeutic development. Indeed, our analysis confirmed that the significant disease-257 relevant neuronal modules contain well-supported AD risk genes, including the familial AD gene 258 APP and the APP processing pathway member SORL1^{62,63} in module M2, which was the most 259

260 strongly associated with dementia status (CDR) (Fig. 3c). The overall expression of M2 member 261 genes, as captured by the module eigengene, exhibited marked downregulation during the progression from normal cognitive function to advanced AD dementia (Fig. 3f). 262 Correspondingly, gene ontology analysis of M2 member genes revealed an enrichment for 263 264 many biological processes that are profoundly affected by AD, including synaptic signaling, 265 learning and memory, synaptic structure and organization, transmembrane transporter activity, and regulation of mitochondrial transcription and translation (Fig. 3i). Another module of 266 267 significance was M16, a top trait-associated module with the strongest enrichment for our 268 candidate risk genes. In comparison to M2, M16 member genes didn't display significant downregulation until more advanced levels of cognitive decline (Fig. 3g) and showed an 269 270 enrichment for biological process terms encompassing many aspects of mitochondrial function, 271 including oxidative phosphorylation, and glucose and purine nucleotide metabolism (Fig. 3j).

272

273 Identification of high-priority candidate causal risk genes for functional screening in vivo

274 The network analysis identified important relationships between genes and modules involved in 275 synapse and mitochondrial biology, critical components of healthy neuronal function, and LOAD. 276 Since our candidate LOAD risk genes were enriched in these important neuronal function co-277 expression modules and were more closely correlated with dementia status than with neuropathological burden, we chose to functionally screen our candidates for effects on 278 memory, in a non-amyloidosis model, in neurons in vivo. The C. elegans short/intermediate-279 term associative memory (S/ITAM) assay was chosen as the ideal experimental paradigm due 280 281 to the highly evolutionarily conserved molecular biology which underpins memory function from worms to mammals²⁷⁻²⁹, as well as the practicality and efficiency the model affords, allowing for 282 283 the testing of large numbers of candidates.

284 For an un-biased, systematic analysis, we included 4 categories of candidates (Table 1). 1) High-priority candidate causal risk genes. Since candidate risk genes with higher 285 centrality in the network are more likely to have disease-relevant effects if perturbed⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶, we 286 focused on candidates which occupied centrally-connected nodes within the overall co-287 288 expression network. We identified "core" genes as those positioned in the top 10% of the 289 network, as determined by the eigengene-based connectivity measure kME (see Methods). 290 Interestingly, overall connectivity in the co-expression network displayed a strong correlation 291 with gene-trait association (Fig. 3h) so that genes with the highest absolute correlation with 292 CDR score were more likely to have high network centrality. Furthermore, core genes were 293 enriched for biological process terms involved in neuronal functions, including synaptic 294 plasticity, synaptic vesicle transport, and synapse organization, as well as ATP metabolic 295 processes, protein targeting to the membrane, and RNA catabolism (Fig. 3k). We ranked these 296 core network candidate risk genes by absolute correlation with dementia status and prioritized 297 the top 20 as high-priority targets for functional validation (Supplemental Table 6). Notably, eighteen of these top 20 candidates were either not the genes usually nominated from their 298 respective loci or were genes that came from sub-GWS loci^{6,7}. The two exceptions were the 299 300 well-replicated LOAD GWAS gene PTK2B, and the familial AD gene APP (Supplemental Table **6**), which resides in a locus that reached the suggestive association threshold ($P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$)⁷. Out 301 of the 20 high-priority candidates, 16 were members of the neuronal signature modules M2 and 302 303 M32. The remaining four candidates were members of M16, the module with the strongest 304 enrichment for candidate LOAD risk genes (Fig. 3e), and one of the top four trait-associated 305 modules. 2) CELF1/SPI1 locus candidates. Since the expression of 18 of the 29 eQTL- and chromatin interaction-implicated genes in the CELF1/SPI1 locus (Fig. 2e) were significantly 306 correlated with CDR score (Table 1, Supplemental Table 4), we selected multiple members 307 308 (n=5) of this locus to screen for potential memory effects. 3) Well-studied LOAD GWAS genes. We selected two of the best studied GWS LOAD GWAS genes, BIN1 and PICALM, based on 309

recent fine-mapping analyses using cell type-specific approaches^{42,43} and their known role in 310 311 synaptic function⁶⁷⁻⁶⁹, as strong candidates. 4) **Candidates unsupported by prioritization** schema. Since any effects on memory function we observed in our screen could conceivably 312 occur due to perturbation of important neuronal genes that coincidentally exist in LOAD GWAS 313 314 loci but have no actual relevance to LOAD genetic risk, we included genes from LOAD GWAS 315 loci that were not prioritized by our analysis (RAPSN and GRIN3B (not present in MSBB RNAseq data); GNB2 and TRPM7 (not correlated with CDR score); and CHL1, GDE1, and RORA 316 (previously identified sub-GWS LOAD GWAS loci⁵ which did not meet significance criteria⁷)), to 317 318 act as surrogate negative controls. To identify the appropriate targets for our 33 prioritized candidate LOAD risk genes (Table 1, Supplemental Table 6), we used the web-based 319 comparative genomics tool OrthoList 2⁷⁰ to identify the closest *C. elegans* orthologs for our 320 321 perturbation screen. Keeping only those genes with orthology predictions supported by more 322 than one database, we found 27 well-supported orthologs for 24 of our candidate risk genes 323 (Table 1, Supplemental Table 7). As a final layer of prioritization, we selected orthologs which 324 had been shown to be expressed in C. elegans neurons, as determined by our previous work characterizing the *C. elegans* neuronal transcriptome⁷¹ (**Table 1**, **Supplemental Table 7**), 325 326 leading to a total of 27 worm orthologs of 24 LOAD GWAS candidate risk genes in 17 loci for in 327 vivo functional screening.

328

Neuron-specific knockdown of LOAD risk gene orthologs alters memory function in *C*. *elegans.*

Since the expression of all our candidate genes were negatively correlated with LOAD severity,
with the exception of *BIN1* and *PICALM* (**Table 1**), we knocked-down the candidate genes using
RNAi to mimic the directional impact of association. To generate neuronal-specific knockdown
of candidate genes, we used a neuronal RNAi-sensitive strain (LC108) of *C. elegans*, which can

335 otherwise be refractory to RNA interference. We knocked-down each of the LOAD candidate risk gene orthologs from egg stage and tested for effects on short/intermediate-term memory (at 336 1 hour and 2 hours post-conditioning) at day 1 (young adulthood). Knockdown of most of the 337 candidate genes had no effect on naive chemotaxis (Supplemental Fig. 3a-g), suggesting that 338 339 they did not alter normal neuronal development or function, with the exceptions of F54A3.2 340 (CKAP5; decreased naive chemotaxis), and aps-2 (AP2S1; increased naive chemotaxis), which unfortunately prevented robust assessment of any potential memory effects for these two high-341 priority genes. In addition, rpt-5 (PSMC3), unc-11 (PICALM), and gpb-1 (GNB2) could not be 342 343 assayed for memory effects due to motor deficits resulting from knockdown. Finally, two of the high-priority candidates, kin-32 (PTK2B) and cisd-1 (CISD1), could not be tested for memory 344 345 effects due to a lack of available RNAi clones in the Ahringer and Vidal libraries. However, their presence in our list of top candidates gave us further confidence in our prioritization schema 346 347 because of previous findings from functional studies of these genes. In mice, PTK2B, a well-348 known LOAD GWAS gene, has been shown to have important roles in hippocampal-dependent memory, synaptic plasticity, and dendritic spine structure⁷², and deficiency of CISD1, a gene 349 involved in mitochondrial function, has been shown to elicit Parkinsonian phenotypes⁷³. 350

351 Among the high-priority candidates that could be tested in the memory assays (**Table 1**). knockdown of vha-10 (ATP6V1G2), cmd-1 (CALM3), and ephx-1 (NGEF) caused significant 352 impacts on memory function (Fig. 4a, 4b, 4d), while knockdown of *jnk-1* (MAPK9), apl-1 (APP), 353 354 Y62E10A.2 (POP7), misc-1 (SLC25A11), and the other CKAP5 ortholog, zvg-9, had no effect 355 (Fig. 4a-c). Knockdown of our top candidate vha-10 (ATP6V1G2) resulted in a robust memory deficit at 1hr post-conditioning (Fig. 4a). ATP6V1G2 encodes a neuronal-specific subunit of the 356 vacuolar-type ATPase (V-ATPase), a proton translocating pump that plays critical roles in the 357 acidification of endosomal compartments including lysosomes⁷⁴ and the loading and release of 358 359 synaptic vesicles⁷⁵. Similarly, knockdown of *cmd-1* (*CALM3*), encoding the calcium-binding

360 protein calmodulin, resulted in a significant memory deficit at 1hr and 2hr post-conditioning (Fig. 361 **4b**). In the brain calmodulin has diverse functions, including the regulation of synaptic signaling, endocytosis, cholesterol metabolism, and ion channel function⁷⁶. Interestingly, knockdown of the 362 high-priority risk candidate ephx-1 (NGEF) and the well-known LOAD GWAS risk gene amph-1 363 364 (BIN1) had no effect on short/intermediate-term memory function, but instead resulted in 365 increased memory retention at 2hr post-conditioning (Fig. 4d). These results indicate that neuronal loss of expression of these genes impacts processes of active forgetting that are 366 mediated through RAC1/CDC42^{77,78}. Indeed, *NGEF* encodes a neuronal guanine nucleotide 367 368 exchange factor (GEF) that regulates the activity of GTPases such as RAC1, RHOA, and CDC42⁷⁹, and recent work has implicated *BIN1* in RAC1-mediated synaptic remodeling⁸⁰. 369 370 Among the 5 gene orthologs from the gene dense *CELF1/SPI1* locus (**Table 1**) that did

371 not meet the criteria for inclusion in the list of high-priority candidates, mtch-1 (MTCH2), nuo-2 372 (NDUFS3), rpt-5 (PSMC3), and two orthologs of ACP2, pho-5 and pho-14, knockdown of mtch-1, nuo-2, and pho-14 showed no significant memory effects (Fig. 4a, 4e, 4g). However, 373 knockdown of pho-5. the closest ortholog of the lysosomal acid phosphatase gene ACP2. 374 resulted in a memory retention effect at 2hr post-conditioning, similar to what we observed for 375 376 ephx-1 and amph-1 (Fig. 4f). This result suggests that, like NGEF and BIN1, ACP2 is also involved in the process of active forgetting, possibly through the local turnover of synaptic 377 proteins during dendritic spine remodeling, a process recently found to involve neuronal-activity 378 dependent lysosome trafficking⁸¹. 379

In total, out of 24 LOAD GWAS candidate risk genes (27 worm orthologs) in 17 loci tested, we identified 5 genes in 5 loci as *in vivo* modulators of memory function (**Table 1**). Taken together, the results of our systematic perturbation screen indicate that LOAD genetic risk impacts neuronal function, particularly with respect to memory, through two primary avenues – the synapse (*ATP6V1G2*, *CALM3*, *BIN1*, *NGEF*), and the lysosome (*ACP2*, *ATP6V1G2*,

385 CALM3). The common point of interaction between these two fundamental components of 386 neuronal biology is the endosomal trafficking system. Pathway and gene set analyses have previously found a significant enrichment of LOAD-associated genetic variation in genes 387 involved in endolysosomal function⁸². However, the involvement of the endolysosomal system in 388 389 LOAD pathobiology has typically been conceptualized in the context of amyloid and tau 390 biology⁸³⁻⁸⁵. Our findings indicate that genetic contributions to neuronal dysfunction in LOAD 391 pathobiology can affect the endolysosomal system through mechanisms which do not involve 392 amyloid and tau, but instead directly impact the evolutionarily conserved pathways of learning 393 and memory.

394

395 Discussion

Studies of the genetic underpinnings of LOAD continue to uncover new genomic loci of interest 396 but identifying the responsible genes and translating genetic discoveries into druggable targets 397 398 remains a major challenge for the field. In this study we searched for the genetic contributions 399 which underlie neuronal dysfunction in LOAD pathobiology, using an integrative systems 400 approach that incorporated multi-evidence-based gene-mapping and network analysis-based 401 prioritization, with the C. elegans short/intermediate-term associative memory assay as an 402 organismal level readout of the impact of our prioritized candidate risk genes on neuronal circuit integrity and function. 403

We compiled and employed a large array of functional genomics data to identify candidate risk genes from LOAD GWAS loci. Examined in the transcriptional context of the LOAD brain, we found significant associations between many candidate risk genes and phenotypic measures of cognitive dysfunction and LOAD neuropathology. Network analysis identified several neuronal co-expression modules that were the most significantly associated 409 with LOAD-associated cognitive dysfunction. We prioritized candidate risk genes by using 410 genetic association and functional genomics evidence, focusing on core genes in the neuronal co-expression modules. A limitation of functional genomics-enabled post-GWAS gene mapping 411 is the possibility of false positive gene nominations due to such factors as non-causal overlap 412 413 between QTL and GWAS associations and non-disease relevant promiscuous chromatin interactions between GWAS variants and gene promoter regions. This limitation persists 414 regardless of the quality and comprehensiveness of the tools and datasets used. Because of 415 416 this fact, functional follow-up is critical to gaining confidence in a set of GWAS-implicated genes. 417 Thus, we conducted functional studies of the prioritized candidate neuronal risk genes, as well as low-priority and non-prioritized genes, for effects on *in vivo* memory function in *C. elegans*. 418 419 Testing 27 worm orthologs out of 24 LOAD GWAS candidate risk genes in 17 loci, this study is 420 to our knowledge the first comprehensive functional screen of its kind. The most notable finding 421 of this study is the identification of 5 LOAD causal risk genes, ATP6V1G2, CALM3, BIN1, NGEF, and ACP2, in 5 loci, as in vivo modulators of evolutionarily conserved memory function. 422

ATP6V1G2 encodes a neuronal-specific subunit of the large V-ATPase complex. Our 423 analysis prioritized ATP6V1G2 as our top candidate risk gene, both due to its membership 424 425 within the core network of genes, as well as being the candidate most significantly associated with cognitive function. ATP6V1G2 has not been previously nominated as a LOAD risk gene, 426 most likely due to the fact that it resides in the 6p21.32 major histocompatibility (MHC) locus, a 427 region well-known for having an extremely complex LD structure that makes the identification of 428 429 causal variants and genes in the locus particularly difficult. Multiple members of the V-ATPase 430 complex are associated with neurological disorders and neurodegenerative conditions arising due to defective lysosomal acidification⁸⁶. Additionally, V-ATPase function has also been shown 431 to be important for the maintenance of neural stem cell renewal capacity⁸⁷, and the age-related 432 loss of this capacity is also implicated in impaired cognitive function⁸⁸. In support of our findings, 433

a network-based study found *ATP6V1A* (3q13.2), another member subunit of V-ATPase, to be
one of the top drivers of neuronal function that is dysregulated in the LOAD brain²⁴.

Furthermore, testing for LOAD relevance in a *Drosophila* model of A β pathology, the authors of the study²⁴ found that *Vha68-1* (*ATP6V1A*) deficiency negatively affected neuronal activity and exacerbated A β -mediated neuronal toxicity. These findings complement our observation that *vha-10* (*ATP6V1G2*) deficiency causes deficits in short/intermediate-term memory function in *C*. *elegans*, and further highlights evolutionarily conserved V-ATPase function as an attractive target for LOAD therapeutic development.

442 CALM3 is one of the three identical isoforms of the calmodulin gene that is encoded in the human genome. A calcium-binding factor, calmodulin is ubiguitously expressed, and has 443 444 central roles in a wide variety of processes critical to cellular health and function. Calmodulin 445 function has been tied to LOAD pathobiology for some time, leading some to postulate a 446 "calmodulin hypothesis" for AD pathogenesis⁸⁹, as an extension of the already-established "calcium hypothesis"⁹⁰. With respect to CALM3 in particular, it has been difficult to definitively tie 447 alterations in CALM3 expression in the LOAD brain to genetic risk because CALM3 resides 448 within the greater APOE locus. Due to the powerful LOAD association of APOE, along with the 449 450 strong LD relationships in this locus, identification of additional signals beyond the well-studied APOE coding variants⁹¹⁻⁹³ has been challenging. We identified and prioritized CALM3 by our 451 452 analyses for *in vivo* testing. In contrast to mammals, the *C. elegans* genome contains only one 453 ortholog of calmodulin, cmd-1. We found that neuron-specific knockdown of this critical gene 454 *cmd-1* (*CALM3*) resulted in a significant memory deficit at 1hr post-conditioning without causing 455 significant motor or chemotaxis defects. This interesting phenotype likely involves differential regulation of calmodulin-dependent kinase II (CaMKII) activity, given its well-known roles in 456 learning, memory, and forgetting^{94,95}. 457

458 The BIN1 (Bridging Integrator 1) locus has the second strongest LOAD association 459 behind APOE. Recent variant fine-mapping studies have indicated that transcriptional regulatory elements specific to microglia might be the mediators of LOAD genetic risk in the region, 460 resulting in altered microglial *BIN1* expression^{42,43}. However, different cell types in the brain 461 462 express different isoforms of BIN1, and while global transcription of BIN1 is increased in the 463 LOAD brain, the transcription of neuron- and astrocyte-specific isoforms are downregulated and are associated with tau pathology⁹⁶. Additionally, recent work has shown that neuron-specific 464 465 conditional knockout of BIN1 results in reduced synapse density, decreased presynaptic vesicle release, and learning and memory deficits in mice⁶⁷. Interestingly, we found that neuronal-466 specific knockdown of the C. elegans ortholog amph-1 (BIN1) resulted in a decreased ability to 467 "forget" an associated memory, in line with its role in RAC1-mediated synaptic remodeling⁸⁰, an 468 469 important component in the process of active forgetting^{77,78}. These results suggest complex 470 roles for neuronal BIN1 function that may have isoform-dependent phenotypes upon 471 perturbation.

NGEF, or ephexin-1, is a neuronal guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) for 472 GTPases such as RAC1, RHOA, and CDC42. Besides central functions in axon guidance⁷⁹ it 473 474 also has major roles in dendritic spine morphogenesis, post-synaptic organization, and presynaptic vesicle release through its interactions with Eph receptors like EphA4^{97,98}. We found 475 that, similar to amph-1 (BIN1), neuronal knockdown of ephx-1 (NGEF) resulted in a persistence 476 477 of associative memory. In the LOAD GWAS locus that includes NGEF, INPP5D is the gene 478 usually nominated as causal. However, a recent fine-mapping study identified neuron-specific chromatin interactions between LOAD risk variants and the NGEF promoter⁴², nominating 479 NGEF as one of the top candidate neuronal causal genes. These results indicate that there 480 might be multiple, cell type-specific, causal genes in this locus, in contrast to the prevailing view 481 482 that LOAD genetic risk is conferred by dysregulation of *INPP5D* primarily in microglia⁹⁹.

483 The CELF1/SPI1 LOAD GWAS locus (11p11.2), which we screened extensively for 484 functional effects on memory, is a gene dense locus that did not reach GWS in the Jansen et al. 2019 GWAS/X meta-analysis⁷, but has been found as GWS in several previous studies^{5,6,8}. 485 SPI1 has been found to be a likely causal gene with regard to the relevance of this locus for 486 487 microglial function in AD⁵⁷, but LD relationships in this locus are complex and other lines of evidence^{42,43,100} as well as the results presented here indicate that this locus harbors additional 488 causal genes, including ACP2. ACP2 encodes lysosomal acid phosphatase 2, a phosphatase 489 490 present in the lysosomal membrane which assists in the maturation of lysosomal enzymes and helps maintain the optimal pH for proper lysosomal function¹⁰¹. In humans ACP2 is broadly 491 expressed in all tissues, with particularly strong expression in pyramidal neurons of the cortex 492 and cerebellar Purkinje cells¹⁰². ACP2 deficiency in mice causes lysosomal storage defects, 493 494 seizures, skin, cerebellum, and vertebral malformations, and ataxia^{103,104}. Intriguingly, a recent 495 LOAD whole exome sequencing (WES) study identified a rare missense variant in ACP2 (D353E) to be enriched in controls compared to LOAD patients¹⁰⁵, suggesting a protective role 496 497 of ACP2 in LOAD. Correspondingly, we found that neuron-specific knockdown of pho-5 (ACP2) results in extended associative memory in C. elegans, even up to 3 hours post-conditioning, an 498 499 interesting result which agrees directionally with the finding from the WES analysis. While complete loss of ACP2 function results in severe neurological phenotypes^{103,104}, these results 500 suggest that reduced ACP2 function could be protective with respect to LOAD-associated 501 cognitive impairment. 502

In addition to endolysosomal biology, mitochondrial function was also enriched in our top LOAD-associated neuronal modules, and both have been implicated in the etiology of other neurodegenerative diseases, including Parkinson's disease (PD)¹⁰⁶. Interestingly, several PD risk genes are members of the modules we highlight in this study, including *GBA* and *PINK1* (mitochondrial module M16), and *SNCA* and *PRKN* (neuronal module M2). Additionally, gene 508 ontology analysis of the LOAD-downregulated mitochondrial function module M16 found a 509 significant enrichment for genes involved in antigen presentation (Fig. 3k), and recent studies have drawn links between mitochondrial antigen presentation and immune responses in PD¹⁰⁷, 510 suggesting potentially common mechanisms of pathogenesis between the two diseases, 511 512 centered on mitochondrial biology. Notably, a previous co-expression network study found two modules which were conserved between normal aging and LOAD, one representing 513 mitochondrial processes, and the other representing synaptic function, and identified 514 ATP6V1G2 as a top hub gene common to both LOAD and aging¹⁰⁸. Since modules and genes 515 516 that we identified through our work have also been found to be relevant to the normal aging process, this suggests that perhaps LOAD genetic risk factors which affect neuronal function 517 are the earliest contributors to disease pathophysiology, as aging is the greatest risk factor for 518 519 neurodegenerative disease, including LOAD. 520 In summary, our integrative analysis and in vivo screening revealed genetic contributions

to neuronal dysfunction in LOAD pathobiology and identified evolutionarily conserved key
neuronal genes and pathways involved in this process. When combined with the growing
publicly available human genomic data, simple model organism systems, such as the *C*. *elegans* behavioral paradigm used here, have great potential to advance the functional genetic
understanding of the complex etiology of LOAD.

526

527 Acknowledgments

528 We thank the Murphy and Suh lab members for their input. This work was supported by NIH 529 grants AG057433, AG061521, AG055501, AG057706, AG057909, and AG017242 (Y.S.) The 530 work was also supported by NIH grant AG057341 to C.T.M. and Y.S..

531 Author Contributions

- 532 Y.S. and C.T.M conceptualized the study. A.D.H., S.Z., and R.N.A. performed experiments and
- analyzed data. A.D.H., S.Z., R.N.A., C.T.M. and Y.S. wrote the manuscript.

534

535 Methods

- 536 Data sources
- 537 Alzheimer's disease GWAS summary statistics from the Jansen et al. meta-analysis⁷ were
- retrieved from https://ctg.cncr.nl/software/summary_statistics. The MSBB LOAD RNA-seq data
- are available through the AD Knowledge Portal (https://adknowledgeportal.synapse.org) under
- 540 the synapse ID# syn3159438. Processed single-cell expression data from human brain^{32,55,56}
- 541 was downloaded from the PsychENCODE Integrative analysis web portal
- 542 (http://resource.psychencode.org), as listed under the descriptor "Processed single-cell
- 543 expression data merged from all three sources". Human brain cell type-specific enhancer tracks
- from Nott et al.⁴² are available through the UCSC Genome Brower
- 545 (https://genome.ucsc.edu/s/nottalexi/glass_lab_BrainCellTypes_hg19).

546

547 LOAD patient cohort

The Mount Sinai Brain Bank (MSBB) LOAD cohort consists of 364 postmortem control and LOAD patient brains, each accompanied by robust clinical and neuropathological phenotype metadata, with various sample subsets used for the generation of genome-, transcriptome- and proteome-scale molecular datasets, as has been described in detail previously⁴⁰. For our analyses we utilized bulk RNA-seq data that had been generated from the Brodmann area 36 parahippocampal gyrus region of a subset of the greater cohort (n=215). Each individual had full neuropathological assessments according to the Consortium to Establish a Registry for

555	Alzheimer's Disease (CERAD) protocol ¹⁰⁹ , a Braak staging score for neurofibrillary
556	neuropathology burden ¹¹⁰ , and a Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) scale score ¹¹¹ based on
557	premortem dementia and cognitive function assessment. APOE genotype was available for a
558	subset of the individuals (n=135).

559

560 Candidate gene mapping

To map LOAD GWAS loci to genes we used the web-based tool Functional Mapping and 561 562 Annotation (FUMA, v1.3.6a)⁵⁴. Using the summary statistics from the Jansen et al. metaanalysis, a sub-genome-wide significance threshold of $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ was used to identify all 563 564 independent ($r^2 < 0.1$, EUR population, 1000 Genomes) loci. Within each identified locus, all 565 SNPs that met the significance threshold were used for mapping, as well as SNPs in strong 566 linkage disequilibrium (l^2 >0.6, EUR population, 1000 Genomes) with the index variant of each 567 locus. Gene mapping was conducted using two strategies: 1) Selecting genes with significant cis-eQTL associations (FDR < 0.05) with the LOAD GWAS SNPs (i.e., expression of the gene is 568 associated with allelic variation at the SNP). Six large-scale brain eQTL studies were utilized for 569 this purpose – PsychENCODE³², CommonMind Consortium³³, BRAINEAC³⁴, BrainSeq³⁵, 570 ROSMAP³⁶, and GTEx v8 (Brain and Nerve tissue only)³⁷; and 2) Selecting genes by identifying 571 572 significant chromatin interactions (FDR \leq 1e-6) between gene promoter regions (250 bp up- and 500 bp downstream of the transcription start site) and the LOAD GWAS SNPs, as identified by 573 574 Hi-C data. Data from three Hi-C studies of brain and neural tissue were utilized – DLPFC from PsychENCODE³², Adult and Fetal cortex data from the study of Giusti-Rodríguez et al.³⁸, and 575 576 DLPFC, Hippocampus, and Neural Progenitor Cell data from the study of Schmitt et al.³⁹.

577

578 Cell type expression specificity of candidate risk genes

We investigated the cell type-specific expression of our candidate risk genes by examining their
expression patterns in published human single-cell transcriptome data from the temporal
cortex^{32,55,56}. Preprocessed single-cell expression data^{32,55,56} was downloaded as described
above, and only the adult, broad cell class data was retained (Astrocyte, Endothelial, Microglia,
Neuron, Oligodendrocyte, OPC). Expression data was scaled and log-normalized and displayed
as a heatmap by using the R package 'pheatmap'.

585

586 Statistics

587 Descriptions of all statistical tests performed are included in the figure legends or the respective588 Methods sections, where relevant.

589

590 Co-expression network analysis

The R package 'WGCNA'58 was used to construct a co-expression network from the MSBB 591 592 LOAD brain RNA-seq data⁴⁰. For the creation of the network we utilized the publicly available 593 preprocessed expression matrix (see Data sources) which had already been normalized and 594 adjusted for sex, race, age, RNA integrity, post-mortem interval, and batch effect. A weighted co-expression network was built using the preprocessed expression values and the 595 blockwiseModules WGCNA function with the following parameters: soft-thresholding power = 8, 596 597 TOMType = "signed", deepSplit = 2, minimum module size of 15, merge cut height of 0.25, 598 signed hybrid network with pamRespectsDendro = FALSE. This resulted in the identification of 599 32 modules of co-expressed genes, from which we calculated module eigengenes (MEs). Correlations between clinical and neuropathological traits and individual gene expression or 600 MEs were computed as Pearson's correlations and were corrected for multiple testing according 601

to the FDR (Benjamini-Hochberg) method. Significance was determined using an adjusted *P*value cutoff of 0.05.

604

605 Enrichment analysis

606 Enrichment of LOAD GWAS signal⁷ in open chromatin regions of human brain cell types was calculated according to the methodology of Wang et al.⁴⁵, using called peaks from scATAC-seq 607 of the human brain⁴³. At each p-value significance cut-off, using a sliding -log(p-value) threshold 608 from 0 to 10 in steps of 0.1, the proportion of SNPs in ATAC-seq peaks with p-values more 609 significant that the cut-off, the foreground, was calculated against the proportion of SNPs 610 611 present in the summary statistics (~13 m). Co-expression modules were tested for significant 612 overlap with the cell type-specific expression signatures of five major brain cell types (neurons, microglia, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, endothelial) identified through human brain single-cell 613 RNA-sequencing data⁵⁵, and reported previously⁵⁹. Enrichment statistics were calculated by one 614 615 tailed Fisher's exact test and corrected for multiple comparisons by the FDR (Benjamini-Hochberg) method. Significance was determined using an adjusted P-value cutoff of 0.05. 616 Functional enrichment of biological pathways within the co-expression modules was assessed 617 by over-representation test, using the R package 'clusterProfiler'¹¹², considering all genes 618 619 present in the MSBB RNA-seq dataset as the set of background genes. The Gene Ontology (Biological Process) gene sets used for the enrichment analysis came from the Molecular 620 Signatures Database (MSigDB) v7.0^{113,114}. Multiple testing correction was performed according 621 to the FDR (Benjamini-Hochberg) method and significance was determined using an adjusted 622 623 *P*-value cutoff of 0.05. Significantly enriched terms were visualized as a network map, with edges connecting overlapping gene sets, using the emapplot function of the R package 624 'enrichplot'¹¹⁵, with layout = "kk". 625

626

627 Identification of core network genes

628 To identify genes with high trait-relevance that also reside in centrally-located positions within the co-expression network, we took the approach used by Chateigner et al.¹¹⁶. By utilizing the 629 module membership measure kME (the correlation between the expression of a gene and the 630 module eigengene), it can be appreciated that the genes with the highest kME in a given 631 632 module are also the most correlated to the traits that are most closely associated with the module eigengene. This relationship demonstrates the utility of employing kME as a centrality 633 634 score when prioritizing genes with both relevance to the trait of interest and high network 635 connectivity. Using kME to define the topological positions of all the genes in the co-expression network, the max kME was identified for every gene (i.e., the score with respect to the module 636 637 to which the gene was assigned), and "core" network genes were then defined as the top 10% 638 of genes with the highest global absolute scores.

639

640 Worm cultivation

All strains were maintained at 20°C on plates made from high growth medium (HGM: 3 g/L 641 NaCl, 20 g/L Bacto-peptone, 30 g/L Bacto-agar in distilled water. 4 mL/L cholesterol (5 ma/mL in 642 ethanol), 1 mL/L 1M CaCl2, 1 mL/L 1M MqSO4, and 25 mL/L 1M potassium phosphate buffer 643 (pH 6.0) added to molten agar after autoclaving (Brenner, 1974) with OP50 E.coli as the food 644 source. For RNAi treatment, the standard HGM was supplemented with 1 mL/L 1M IPTG 645 646 (isopropyl b-d-1-thiogalactopyranoside) and 1 mL/L 100 mg/mL carbenicillin, and plates were 647 seeded with HT115 E. coli for ad libitum feeding. Worms were synchronized by collecting eggs 648 from hermaphrodites via exposure to an alkaline-bleach solution (80 mL water, 5 mL 5N KOH,

- 15 mL sodium hypochlorite); collected eggs were repeatedly washed in M9 buffer (6 g/L
- Na2HPO4, 3 g/L KH2PO4, 5 g/L NaCl and 1 mL/L 1M MgSO4 in distilled water; Brenner, 1974).
- 651
- 652 Strains
- 653 LC108 (vls69 [pCFJ90(Pmyo-2::mCherry + Punc-119::sid-1)])
- 654 Short/intermediate-term associative memory training
- 655 Worms were tested for short/intermediate-term memory as previously described (Kauffman et
- al., 2010). Briefly, synchronized day 1 adult hermaphrodites were washed from HGM plates with
- M9 buffer for 3 times. Then the animals were starved for 1 hr in M9 buffer. For training, worms
- were transferred to 10 cm NGM conditioning plates seeded with OP50 E. coli bacteria and with
- 18 ul 10% 2-butanone (Acros Organics) in ethanol on the lid for 1 hr. After conditioning, the
- trained worms were tested for chemotaxis towards 10% butanone vs. an ethanol control either
- 661 immediately (0 hr) or after being transferred to 10 cm NGM plates with fresh OP50 for specified
- 662 intervals before testing (30 min-2 hr). Chemotaxis indices (CI) were calculated as follow:
- 663 (#wormsButanone #wormsEthanol)/(Total #worms). Learning indices (LI) are: LI_{trained=}CI_{trained}-
- 664 Cl_{naive}.
- 665

666 1. Association, A.s. 2016 Alzheimer's Disease Facts and Figures. *Alzheimer's & Dementia* **12**(2016). De Strooper, B. & Karran, E. The Cellular Phase of Alzheimer's Disease. Cell 164, 603-15 (2016). 667 2. 668 Scheltens, P. et al. Alzheimer's disease. Lancet 388, 505-17 (2016). 3. Cummings, J. et al. Drug development in Alzheimer's disease: the path to 2025. Alzheimers Res 669 4. 670 Ther 8, 39 (2016). 671 5. Lambert, J.C. et al. Meta-analysis of 74,046 individuals identifies 11 new susceptibility loci for Alzheimer's disease. Nat Genet 45, 1452-8 (2013). 672 673 6. Kunkle, B.W. et al. Genetic meta-analysis of diagnosed Alzheimer's disease identifies new risk 674 loci and implicates Abeta, tau, immunity and lipid processing. Nat Genet 51, 414-430 (2019). 675 7. Jansen, I.E. et al. Genome-wide meta-analysis identifies new loci and functional pathways influencing Alzheimer's disease risk. Nat Genet 51, 404-413 (2019). 676

8. Marioni, R.E. *et al.* GWAS on family history of Alzheimer's disease. *Transl Psychiatry* **8**, 99 (2018).

678	9.	Maurano, M.T. et al. Systematic localization of common disease-associated variation in
679		regulatory DNA. <i>Science</i> 337 , 1190-5 (2012).
680	10.	Novikova, G., Andrews, S.J., Renton, A.E. & Marcora, E. Beyond association: successes and
681		challenges in linking non-coding genetic variation to functional consequences that modulate
682		Alzheimer's disease risk. Mol Neurodegener 16, 27 (2021).
683	11.	Pimenova, A.A., Raj, T. & Goate, A.M. Untangling Genetic Risk for Alzheimer's Disease. <i>Biol</i>
684		Psychiatry 83 , 300-310 (2018).
685	12.	Cano-Gamez, E. & Trynka, G. From GWAS to Function: Using Functional Genomics to Identify the
686		Mechanisms Underlying Complex Diseases. Front Genet 11, 424 (2020).
687	13.	Sims, R., Hill, M. & Williams, J. The multiplex model of the genetics of Alzheimer's disease. <i>Nat</i>
688		Neurosci 23 , 311-322 (2020).
689	14.	Sims, R. et al. Rare coding variants in PLCG2, ABI3, and TREM2 implicate microglial-mediated
690		innate immunity in Alzheimer's disease. <i>Nat Genet 49,</i> 1373-1384 (2017).
691	15.	Jonsson, T. et al. Variant of TREM2 associated with the risk of Alzheimer's disease. N Engl J Med
692		368 , 107-16 (2013).
693	16.	Guerreiro, R. et al. TREM2 variants in Alzheimer's disease. N Engl J Med 368, 117-27 (2013).
694	17.	van der Lee, S.J. et al. A nonsynonymous mutation in PLCG2 reduces the risk of Alzheimer's
695		disease, dementia with Lewy bodies and frontotemporal dementia, and increases the likelihood
696		of longevity. <i>Acta Neuropathol</i> 138 , 237-250 (2019).
697	18.	Karahan, H. et al. Deletion of Abi3 gene locus exacerbates neuropathological features of
698		Alzheimer's disease in a mouse model of A β amyloidosis. <i>Sci Adv</i> 7 , eabe3954 (2021).
699	19.	Obst, J. et al. PLCy2 regulates TREM2 signalling and integrin-mediated adhesion and migration of
700		human iPSC-derived macrophages. <i>Sci Rep</i> 11 , 19842 (2021).
701	20.	McQuade, A. et al. Gene expression and functional deficits underlie TREM2-knockout microglia
702		responses in human models of Alzheimer's disease. Nat Commun 11 , 5370 (2020).
703	21.	Parhizkar, S. et al. Loss of TREM2 function increases amyloid seeding but reduces plaque-
704		associated ApoE. Nat Neurosci 22, 191-204 (2019).
705	22.	Andreone, B.J. et al. Alzheimer's-associated PLCγ2 is a signaling node required for both TREM2
706		function and the inflammatory response in human microglia. <i>Nat Neurosci</i> 23, 927-938 (2020).
707	23.	Zhang, B. et al. Integrated systems approach identifies genetic nodes and networks in late-onset
708		Alzheimer's disease. <i>Cell</i> 153 , 707-20 (2013).
709	24.	Wang, M. et al. Transformative Network Modeling of Multi-omics Data Reveals Detailed Circuits,
710		Key Regulators, and Potential Therapeutics for Alzheimer's Disease. Neuron 109, 257-272.e14
711		(2021).
712	25.	Meyer, K. et al. REST and Neural Gene Network Dysregulation in iPSC Models of Alzheimer's
713		Disease. Cell Rep 26, 1112-1127.e9 (2019).
714	26.	Lagomarsino, V.N. et al. Stem cell-derived neurons reflect features of protein networks,
715		neuropathology, and cognitive outcome of their aged human donors. Neuron 109, 3402-3420.e9
716		(2021).
717	27.	Stein, G.M. & Murphy, C.T. C. elegans positive olfactory associative memory is a molecularly
718		conserved behavioral paradigm. Neurobiol Learn Mem 115, 86-94 (2014).
719	28.	Kauffman, A.L., Ashraf, J.M., Corces-Zimmerman, M.R., Landis, J.N. & Murphy, C.T. Insulin
720		signaling and dietary restriction differentially influence the decline of learning and memory with
721		age. <i>PLoS Biol</i> 8 , e1000372 (2010).
722	29.	Kauffman, A. et al. C. elegans positive butanone learning, short-term, and long-term associative
723		memory assays. J Vis Exp (2011).
724	30.	Arey, R.N. & Murphy, C.T. Conserved regulators of cognitive aging: From worms to humans.
725		Behav Brain Res 322 , 299-310 (2017).

726	31.	Lakhina, V. et al. Genome-wide functional analysis of CREB/long-term memory-dependent
727		transcription reveals distinct basal and memory gene expression programs. Neuron 85, 330-45
728		(2015).
729	32.	Wang, D. et al. Comprehensive functional genomic resource and integrative model for the
730		human brain. <i>Science</i> 362 (2018).
731	33.	Fromer, M. et al. Gene expression elucidates functional impact of polygenic risk for
732		schizophrenia. <i>Nat Neurosci</i> 19 , 1442-1453 (2016).
733	34.	Ramasamy, A. et al. Genetic variability in the regulation of gene expression in ten regions of the
734		human brain. <i>Nat Neurosci</i> 17 , 1418-28 (2014).
735	35.	Jaffe, A.E. et al. Developmental and genetic regulation of the human cortex transcriptome
736		illuminate schizophrenia pathogenesis. Nat Neurosci 21 , 1117-1125 (2018).
737	36.	Ng, B. et al. An xQTL map integrates the genetic architecture of the human brain's transcriptome
738		and epigenome. <i>Nat Neurosci</i> 20 , 1418-1426 (2017).
739	37.	The GTEx Consortium atlas of genetic regulatory effects across human tissues. Science 369,
740		1318-1330 (2020).
741	38.	Giusti-Rodríguez, P. et al. Using three-dimensional regulatory chromatin interactions from adult
742		and fetal cortex to interpret genetic results for psychiatric disorders and cognitive traits. bioRxiv,
743		406330 (2019).
744	39.	Schmitt, A.D. et al. A Compendium of Chromatin Contact Maps Reveals Spatially Active Regions
745		in the Human Genome. <i>Cell Rep</i> 17, 2042-2059 (2016).
746	40.	Wang, M. et al. The Mount Sinai cohort of large-scale genomic, transcriptomic and proteomic
747		data in Alzheimer's disease. <i>Sci Data</i> 5 , 180185 (2018).
748	41.	Tansey, K.E., Cameron, D. & Hill, M.J. Genetic risk for Alzheimer's disease is concentrated in
749		specific macrophage and microglial transcriptional networks. Genome Med 10, 14 (2018).
750	42.	Nott, A. et al. Brain cell type-specific enhancer-promoter interactome maps and disease-risk
751		association. <i>Science</i> 366 , 1134-1139 (2019).
752	43.	Corces, M.R. et al. Single-cell epigenomic analyses implicate candidate causal variants at
753		inherited risk loci for Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases. Nat Genet 52, 1158-1168 (2020).
754	44.	Novikova, G. et al. Integration of Alzheimer's disease genetics and myeloid genomics identifies
755		disease risk regulatory elements and genes. Nat Commun 12, 1610 (2021).
756	45.	Wang, X. et al. Discovery and validation of sub-threshold genome-wide association study loci
757		using epigenomic signatures. <i>Elife</i> 5 (2016).
758	46.	Wang, A. et al. Single-cell multiomic profiling of human lungs reveals cell-type-specific and age-
759		dynamic control of SARS-CoV2 host genes. <i>Elife</i> 9 (2020).
760	47.	Nelson, C.P. et al. Association analyses based on false discovery rate implicate new loci for
761		coronary artery disease. Nat Genet 49 , 1385-1391 (2017).
762	48.	Li, Z. et al. Integrating Mouse and Human Genetic Data to Move beyond GWAS and Identify
763		Causal Genes in Cholesterol Metabolism. Cell Metab 31 , 741-754.e5 (2020).
764	49.	Hammond, R.K. et al. Biological constraints on GWAS SNPs at suggestive significance thresholds
765		reveal additional BMI loci. <i>Elife</i> 10 (2021).
766	50.	Claussnitzer, M. et al. FTO Obesity Variant Circuitry and Adipocyte Browning in Humans. N Engl J
767		Med 373 , 895-907 (2015).
768	51.	Musunuru, K. et al. From noncoding variant to phenotype via SORT1 at the 1p13 cholesterol
769		locus. <i>Nature 466,</i> 714-9 (2010).
770	52.	Zhu, Z. et al. Integration of summary data from GWAS and eQTL studies predicts complex trait
771		gene targets. <i>Nat Genet</i> 48 , 481-7 (2016).
772	53.	Porcu, E. et al. Mendelian randomization integrating GWAS and eQTL data reveals genetic
773		determinants of complex and clinical traits. Nat Commun 10, 3300 (2019).

774	54.	Watanabe, K., Taskesen, E., van Bochoven, A. & Posthuma, D. Functional mapping and
775		annotation of genetic associations with FUMA. Nat Commun 8, 1826 (2017).
776	55.	Darmanis, S. et al. A survey of human brain transcriptome diversity at the single cell level. Proc
777		Natl Acad Sci U S A 112 , 7285-90 (2015).
778	56.	Lake, B.B. et al. Neuronal subtypes and diversity revealed by single-nucleus RNA sequencing of
779		the human brain. <i>Science</i> 352 , 1586-90 (2016).
780	57.	Huang, K.L. et al. A common haplotype lowers PU.1 expression in myeloid cells and delays onset
781		of Alzheimer's disease. <i>Nat Neurosci</i> 20 , 1052-1061 (2017).
782	58.	Langfelder, P. & Horvath, S. WGCNA: an R package for weighted correlation network analysis.
783		BMC Bioinformatics 9 , 559 (2008).
784	59.	Wang, M. et al. Integrative network analysis of nineteen brain regions identifies molecular
785		signatures and networks underlying selective regional vulnerability to Alzheimer's disease.
786		Genome Med 8 , 104 (2016).
787	60.	McKenzie, A.T. et al. Multiscale network modeling of oligodendrocytes reveals molecular
788		components of myelin dysregulation in Alzheimer's disease. Mol Neurodegener 12, 82 (2017).
789	61.	Nelson, M.R. et al. The support of human genetic evidence for approved drug indications. Nat
790		Genet 47 , 856-60 (2015).
791	62.	Raghavan, N.S. et al. Whole-exome sequencing in 20,197 persons for rare variants in Alzheimer's
792		disease. Ann Clin Transl Neurol 5, 832-842 (2018).
793	63.	Vardarajan, B.N. et al. Coding mutations in SORL1 and Alzheimer disease. Ann Neurol 77, 215-27
794		(2015).
795	64.	Albert, R., Jeong, H. & Barabasi, A.L. Error and attack tolerance of complex networks. Nature
796		406 , 378-82 (2000).
797	65.	Jeong, H., Mason, S.P., Barabási, A.L. & Oltvai, Z.N. Lethality and centrality in protein networks.
798		Nature 411 , 41-2 (2001).
799	66.	Kim, S.S. et al. Genes with High Network Connectivity Are Enriched for Disease Heritability. Am J
800		Hum Genet 104 , 896-913 (2019).
801	67.	De Rossi, P. et al. Neuronal BIN1 Regulates Presynaptic Neurotransmitter Release and Memory
802		Consolidation. Cell Rep 30, 3520-3535.e7 (2020).
803	68.	Harel, A., Mattson, M.P. & Yao, P.J. CALM, a clathrin assembly protein, influences cell surface
804		GluR2 abundance. Neuromolecular Med 13, 88-90 (2011).
805	69.	Schürmann, B. et al. A novel role for the late-onset Alzheimer's disease (LOAD)-associated
806		protein Bin1 in regulating postsynaptic trafficking and glutamatergic signaling. Mol Psychiatry
807		25 , 2000-2016 (2020).
808	70.	Kim, W., Underwood, R.S., Greenwald, I. & Shaye, D.D. OrthoList 2: A New Comparative
809		Genomic Analysis of Human and Caenorhabditis elegans Genes. <i>Genetics</i> 210 , 445-461 (2018).
810	71.	Kaletsky, R. et al. The C. elegans adult neuronal IIS/FOXO transcriptome reveals adult phenotype
811		regulators. <i>Nature</i> 529 , 92-6 (2016).
812	72.	Giralt, A. et al. Pyk2 modulates hippocampal excitatory synapses and contributes to cognitive
813		deficits in a Huntington's disease model. <i>Nat Commun 8,</i> 15592 (2017).
814	73.	Geldenhuys, W.J. et al. MitoNEET (CISD1) Knockout Mice Show Signs of Striatal Mitochondrial
815		Dysfunction and a Parkinson's Disease Phenotype. ACS Chem Neurosci 8, 2759-2765 (2017).
816	74.	Mindell, J.A. Lysosomal acidification mechanisms. Annu Rev Physiol 74, 69-86 (2012).
817	75.	Di Giovanni, J. et al. V-ATPase membrane sector associates with synaptobrevin to modulate
818		neurotransmitter release. <i>Neuron</i> 67, 268-79 (2010).
819	76.	Burgoyne, R.D., Helassa, N., McCue, H.V. & Haynes, L.P. Calcium Sensors in Neuronal Function
820		and Dysfunction. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol 11(2019).
821	77.	Davis, R.L. & Zhong, Y. The Biology of Forgetting-A Perspective. <i>Neuron</i> 95 , 490-503 (2017).

000	70	
822	78.	Noyes, N.C., Phan, A. & Davis, R.L. Memory suppressor genes: Modulating acquisition,
823		consolidation, and forgetting. Neuron 109, 3211-3227 (2021).
824	79.	Sahin, M. <i>et al.</i> Eph-dependent tyrosine phosphorylation of ephexin1 modulates growth cone
825		collapse. <i>Neuron</i> 46 , 191-204 (2005).
826	80.	Daudin, R. et al. BIN1 genetic risk factor for Alzheimer is sufficient to induce early structural tract
827		alterations in entorhinal-hippocampal area and memory-related hippocampal multi-scale
828		impairments. <i>bioRxiv</i> , 437228 (2021).
829	81.	Goo, M.S. et al. Activity-dependent trafficking of lysosomes in dendrites and dendritic spines. J
830		<i>Cell Biol</i> 216 , 2499-2513 (2017).
831	82.	Gao, S., Casey, A.E., Sargeant, T.J. & Mäkinen, V.P. Genetic variation within endolysosomal
832		system is associated with late-onset Alzheimer's disease. Brain 141, 2711-2720 (2018).
833	83.	Nixon, R.A. Amyloid precursor protein and endosomal-lysosomal dysfunction in Alzheimer's
834		disease: inseparable partners in a multifactorial disease. <i>Faseb j</i> 31 , 2729-2743 (2017).
835	84.	Van Acker, Z.P., Bretou, M. & Annaert, W. Endo-lysosomal dysregulations and late-onset
836		Alzheimer's disease: impact of genetic risk factors. <i>Mol Neurodegener</i> 14 , 20 (2019).
837	85.	Whyte, L.S., Lau, A.A., Hemsley, K.M., Hopwood, J.J. & Sargeant, T.J. Endo-lysosomal and
838		autophagic dysfunction: a driving factor in Alzheimer's disease? J Neurochem 140 , 703-717
839		(2017).
840	86.	Song, Q., Meng, B., Xu, H. & Mao, Z. The emerging roles of vacuolar-type ATPase-dependent
841	00.	Lysosomal acidification in neurodegenerative diseases. <i>Transl Neurodegener</i> 9 , 17 (2020).
842	87.	Lange, C. <i>et al.</i> The H(+) vacuolar ATPase maintains neural stem cells in the developing mouse
	07.	
843	00	cortex. Stem Cells Dev 20 , 843-50 (2011).
844	88.	Navarro Negredo, P., Yeo, R.W. & Brunet, A. Aging and Rejuvenation of Neural Stem Cells and
845	00	Their Niches. <i>Cell Stem Cell</i> 27 , 202-223 (2020).
846	89.	O'Day, D.H. & Myre, M.A. Calmodulin-binding domains in Alzheimer's disease proteins:
847		extending the calcium hypothesis. <i>Biochem Biophys Res Commun</i> 320 , 1051-4 (2004).
848	90.	Khachaturian, Z.S. Calcium hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease and brain aging. Ann N Y Acad Sci
849		747 , 1-11 (1994).
850	91.	Chouraki, V. & Seshadri, S. Genetics of Alzheimer's disease. Adv Genet 87, 245-94 (2014).
851	92.	Moreno-Grau, S. et al. Genome-wide significant risk factors on chromosome 19 and the APOE
852		locus. <i>Oncotarget</i> 9 , 24590-24600 (2018).
853	93.	Zhou, X. et al. Non-coding variability at the APOE locus contributes to the Alzheimer's risk. Nat
854		<i>Commun</i> 10 , 3310 (2019).
855	94.	Giese, K.P. & Mizuno, K. The roles of protein kinases in learning and memory. Learn Mem 20,
856		540-52 (2013).
857	95.	Inoue, A. et al. Forgetting in C. elegans is accelerated by neuronal communication via the TIR-
858		1/JNK-1 pathway. <i>Cell Rep</i> 3 , 808-19 (2013).
859	96.	Taga, M. et al. BIN1 protein isoforms are differentially expressed in astrocytes, neurons, and
860		microglia: neuronal and astrocyte BIN1 are implicated in tau pathology. <i>Mol Neurodegener</i> 15 ,
861		44 (2020).
862	97.	Shi, L., Fu, A.K. & Ip, N.Y. Multiple roles of the Rho GEF ephexin1 in synapse remodeling.
863	57.	Commun Integr Biol 3 , 622-4 (2010).
864	98.	Fu, W.Y. <i>et al.</i> Cdk5 regulates EphA4-mediated dendritic spine retraction through an ephexin1-
865	58.	
	00	dependent mechanism. <i>Nat Neurosci</i> 10 , 67-76 (2007).
866	99.	Pedicone, C. <i>et al.</i> Pan-SHIP1/2 inhibitors promote microglia effector functions essential for CNS
867	100	homeostasis. J Cell Sci 133 (2020).
868	100.	Karch, C.M., Ezerskiy, L.A., Bertelsen, S. & Goate, A.M. Alzheimer's Disease Risk Polymorphisms
869		Regulate Gene Expression in the ZCWPW1 and the CELF1 Loci. <i>PLoS One</i> 11 , e0148717 (2016).

870	101.	Makrypidi, G. <i>et al.</i> Mannose 6 dephosphorylation of lysosomal proteins mediated by acid
871 872	102.	phosphatases Acp2 and Acp5. <i>Mol Cell Biol</i> 32 , 774-82 (2012). Geier, C., Kreysing, J., Boettcher, H., Pohlmann, R. & von Figura, K. Localization of lysosomal acid
873	102.	phosphatase mRNA in mouse tissues. J Histochem Cytochem 40 , 1275-82 (1992).
874	103.	Mannan, A.U. <i>et al.</i> Mutation in the gene encoding lysosomal acid phosphatase (Acp2) causes
875		cerebellum and skin malformation in mouse. <i>Neurogenetics</i> 5 , 229-38 (2004).
876	104.	Saftig, P. et al. Mice deficient in lysosomal acid phosphatase develop lysosomal storage in the
877		kidney and central nervous system. J Biol Chem 272, 18628-35 (1997).
878	105.	Bis, J.C. et al. Whole exome sequencing study identifies novel rare and common Alzheimer's-
879		Associated variants involved in immune response and transcriptional regulation. Mol Psychiatry
880		(2018).
881	106.	Chang, D. et al. A meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies identifies 17 new
882		Parkinson's disease risk loci. Nat Genet 49 , 1511-1516 (2017).
883	107.	Matheoud, D. et al. Parkinson's Disease-Related Proteins PINK1 and Parkin Repress
884		Mitochondrial Antigen Presentation. <i>Cell</i> 166 , 314-327 (2016).
885	108.	Miller, J.A., Oldham, M.C. & Geschwind, D.H. A systems level analysis of transcriptional changes
886	100	in Alzheimer's disease and normal aging. <i>J Neurosci</i> 28 , 1410-20 (2008).
887 888	109.	Mirra, S.S. <i>et al.</i> The Consortium to Establish a Registry for Alzheimer's Disease (CERAD). Part II.
889		Standardization of the neuropathologic assessment of Alzheimer's disease. <i>Neurology</i> 41 , 479- 86 (1991).
890	110.	Braak, H. & Braak, E. Neuropathological stageing of Alzheimer-related changes. <i>Acta</i>
891	110.	Neuropathol 82 , 239-59 (1991).
892	111.	Morris, J.C. The Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR): current version and scoring rules. <i>Neurology</i> 43 ,
893		2412-4 (1993).
894	112.	Yu, G., Wang, L.G., Han, Y. & He, Q.Y. clusterProfiler: an R package for comparing biological
895		themes among gene clusters. Omics 16, 284-7 (2012).
896	113.	Subramanian, A. et al. Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach for
897		interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102, 15545-50 (2005).
898	114.	Liberzon, A. et al. The Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) hallmark gene set collection. Cell
899		Syst 1 , 417-425 (2015).
900	115.	Yu, G., Wang, L.G., Yan, G.R. & He, Q.Y. DOSE: an R/Bioconductor package for disease ontology
901		semantic and enrichment analysis. <i>Bioinformatics</i> 31 , 608-9 (2015).
902	116.	Chateigner, A. et al. Gene expression predictions and networks in natural populations supports
903		the omnigenic theory. <i>BMC Genomics</i> 21 , 416 (2020).
904		

905 Figure 1. Integrative systems biology approach for LOAD risk gene identification and

- 906 functional screening
- 907 (a) Candidate risk genes are identified from LOAD GWAS summary statistics, using functional
- 908 genomics data from large-scale brain eQTL and chromatin interaction studies. (b) Relevance of
- candidate risk genes to LOAD biology is assessed by correlation of expression patterns with
- 910 clinical and neuropathological traits, and connectivity within co-expression networks built from

LOAD cohort brain RNA-seq data. (c) Prioritized candidate risk genes are screened for *in vivo*effects on memory function through the use of associative memory assays in *C. elegans*.

913

Figure 2. Data from eQTL and chromatin interaction studies implicates potential causal genes in LOAD GWAS loci

916 (a) Enrichment signal for sub-threshold LOAD GWAS SNPs in neuronal open chromatin 917 becomes evident following the removal of GWS loci and nearby SNPs (+/- 1 Mb), becoming similar in magnitude to that of microglia. Each point on the curves represents the difference in 918 fold of the proportion of SNPs with a p-value below the cutoff in the ATAC-seq peaks versus all 919 920 SNPs present in the GWAS summary statistics. (b) Numbers of candidate risk genes unique to, 921 and shared by, the two gene-mapping methods. (c) Distribution of candidate risk genes by gene type and significance threshold. (d) Heatmap of cell type-specific expression patterns of 922 923 candidate risk genes in the human brain. Color scale represents relative expression across cell 924 types (red = higher, blue = lower). (e) Example LOAD GWAS locus (CELF1/SPI1), highlighting 925 challenges in the identification of causal genes. Top to bottom – Manhattan plot of -log10(p-926 value) association statistics from Jansen et al., with the top SNP rs10437655 highlighted in 927 purple and remaining variants colored according to LD (r^2) with the lead SNP; Genome browser 928 track showing all coding genes present in the locus. Gene names colored in green or blue are candidate risk genes nominated by QTL evidence or SNP-promoter interaction evidence, 929 respectively. Gene names colored in red are candidate risk genes nominated by both kinds of 930 evidence; Track showing the location of significant GWAS SNPs (P<1x10⁻⁵), and SNPs in LD 931 932 $(r^{2}>0.6)$; Tracks indicating the positions of enhancer elements identified in different human brain cell types; Track illustrating the significant chromatin interactions between LOAD GWAS SNPs 933 and gene promoters in the locus; Track illustrating the significant eQTL associations between 934 935 LOAD GWAS SNPs and genes in the locus.

936

Figure 3. Co-expression network analysis identifies candidate LOAD risk genes as dysregulated neuronal subnetwork hubs in the LOAD brain

939 (a) Co-expression network analysis of RNA-seq data from the parahippocampal gyrus identifies 940 32 distinct co-expression modules. Modules enriched for cell type-specific gene expression 941 signatures are indicated. (b) UpSet plot of the intersections between gene sets found to be 942 significantly associated with the listed traits. (c) Association significance of correlations between module eigengenes and traits. Significance of the top four trait-associated modules (M2, M20, 943 944 M16, M18) is indicated. Bars extending past the dotted line represent FDR < 0.05. (d) Scatter 945 plot of module eigengene association with CDR vs. enrichment of cell type gene expression 946 signature. Blue dots = neuronal modules, green dots = oligodendrocyte modules, red dots = 947 astrocyte modules, purple dots = microglia modules, yellow dots = endothelial modules. (e) 948 Significance of enrichment of LOAD candidate risk genes within each module. Grey bars = 949 modules with no cell type enrichment, blue bars = neuronal modules, purple bars = microglia 950 modules. Bars extending above the line represent FDR < 0.05. (f-g) Expression of the module 951 eigengene decreases significantly with increased dementia severity for both the 952 neuronal/synapse module M2 (f) and the mitochondrial/metabolism module M16 (g). Pearson's 953 correlation and FDR-corrected *P*-value are indicated. Differences in the expression of the 954 module eigengene at each CDR score with respect to cognitive baseline (CDR=0) was also 955 assessed by t test. (h) Gene expression correlation with CDR is significantly correlated with 956 network connectivity as measured by kME. Pearson's correlation and FDR-corrected P-value 957 are indicated. Core network candidate risk genes, according to max kME, are shown in teal. The 958 top 20 high-priority risk gene candidates, as determined by correlation with CDR and network 959 centrality, are highlighted in orange. (i-k) Significantly enriched (FDR < 0.05) Gene Ontology 960 biological process terms are shown as network maps, with edges connecting overlapping gene

961	sets, for the neuronal/synapse module M2 (i), the mitochondrial/metabolism module M16 (j),
962	and the core network genes (\mathbf{k}). Node size indicates the number of genes overlapping with the
963	term and node color indicates magnitude of adjusted <i>P</i> -value significance. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$,
964	*** <i>P</i> < 0.001.

965

- Figure 4. Neuronal knockdown of LOAD risk gene orthologs alters memory function in *C*.
 elegans
- 968 (a-g) 1 hour and 2 hour post-conditioning learning indices of worms treated with whole-life RNAi
- 969 for LOAD candidate risk gene orthologs. Grouping of the tested orthologs was random and does
- not represent candidate prioritization. $n \ge 4$ (n: technical replicates). Statistical significance
- determined by One-way ANOVA, with Dunnett's post hoc test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0
- 972 0.001, *****P* < 0.0001.

973

Supplemental Figure 1. Lack of enrichment of LOAD GWAS SNPs in open chromatin of
 lung cell types

(a) Enrichment signal for LOAD GWAS SNPs in open chromatin of lung cell types, both with the
inclusion of GWS loci and following the removal of GWS loci and nearby SNPs (+/- 1 Mb). Each
point on the curves represents the difference in fold of the proportion of SNPs with a p-value
below the cutoff in the ATAC-seq peaks versus all SNPs present in the GWAS summary
statistics.

981

982 Supplemental Figure 2. More candidate risk genes were mapped by variant-promoter

983 chromatin interactions than by eQTL evidence

(a) UpSet plot of the intersections between gene sets nominated by the chromatin interaction
data from various Hi-C analyses of brain and neural tissue. (b) UpSet plot of the interactions
between gene sets nominated by the large-scale brain expression quantitative trait loci (eQTL)
studies.

988

Supplemental Figure 3. Naive chemotaxis is mostly unaffected after neuronal knockdown
 of LOAD risk gene orthologs in *C. elegans*

- 991 (a-g) Naive chemotaxis indices of worms treated with whole-life RNAi for LOAD candidate risk
- gene orthologs. Grouping of the tested orthologs was random and does not represent candidate

prioritization. $n \ge 4$ (n: technical replicates). Statistical significance determined by One-way

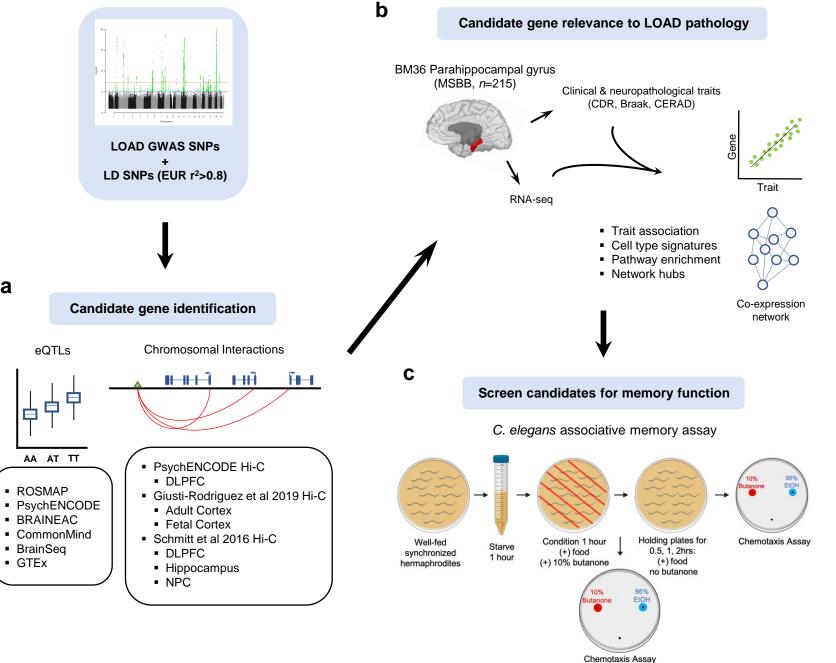
ANOVA, with Dunnett's post hoc test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.



а

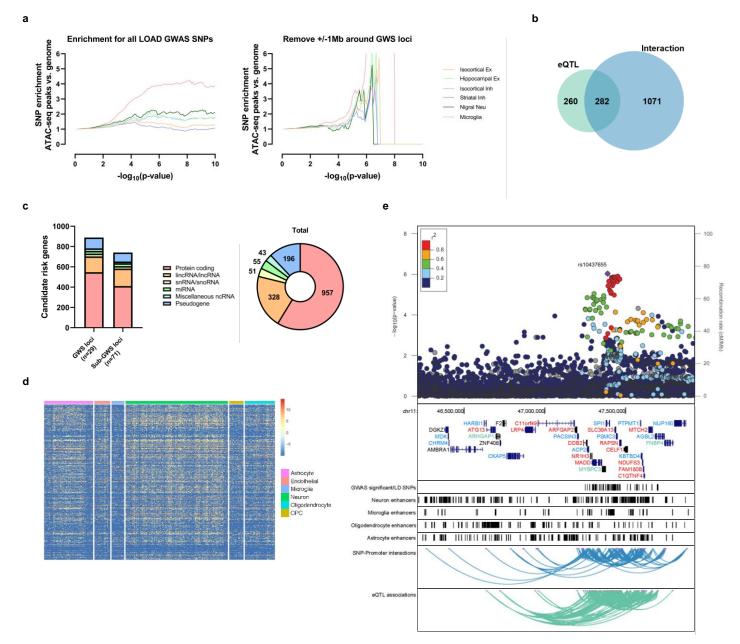
Þ

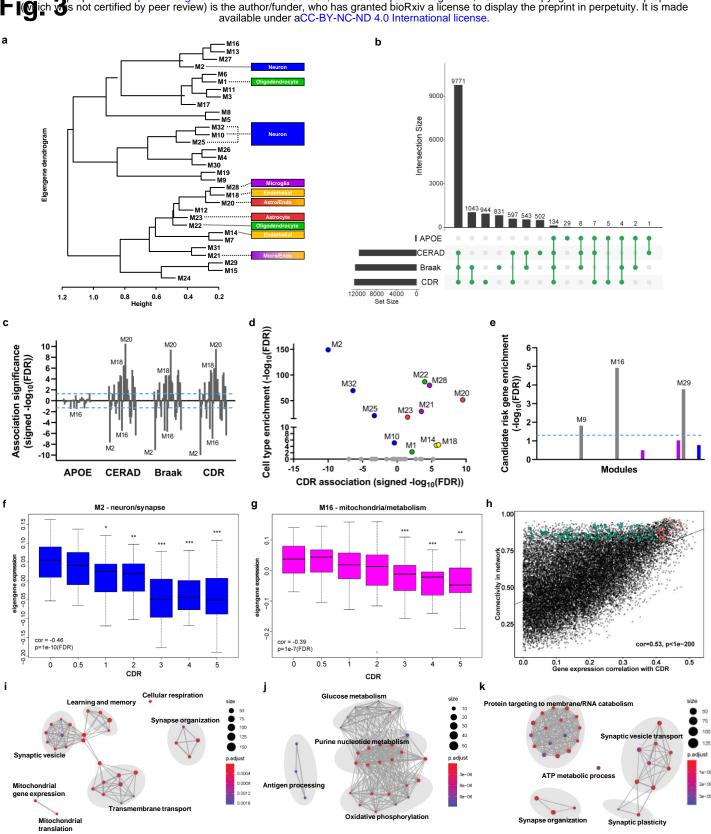
GTEx



(learning)

bioRxix preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint available under acc-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license.





bioRxix preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.08.19.504537; this version posted August 22, 2022. The copyright holder for this preprint for this preprint with a straight with the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license.

