The Alzheimer's disease risk gene *BIN1* modulates neural network activity via the

regulation of L-type calcium channel expression in human-induced neurons

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Abstract

Background: Bridging Integrator 1 (*BIN1*) is the second most important Alzheimer's

disease (AD) risk gene, but its physiological roles in neurons and its contribution to brain

pathology remain largely elusive. In this work, we show that BIN1 plays a critical role in the

regulation of calcium homeostasis, electrical activity, and gene expression of glutamatergic

neurons.

Methods: We generated 3D cerebral organoids and 2D enriched neuronal cell cultures

from isogenic *BIN1* wild-type (WT), heterozygous (HET) and homozygous knockout (KO)

human-induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs). Using single-cell RNA-sequencing,

biochemical assays, immunocytochemistry and multi-electrode array(MEA)

electrophysiology, we characterized the molecular and functional consequences of reduced

BIN1 expression in different neural cell types.

Results: We show that *BIN1* is mainly expressed by oligodendrocytes and

glutamatergic neurons of cerebral organoids, like in the human brain. Both *BIN1* HET and KO

cerebral organoids show specific transcriptional alterations, mainly associated with ion

transport and synapses in glutamatergic neurons. We then demonstrate that *BIN1* cell-

autonomously regulates gene expression in glutamatergic neurons by using a novel protocol

to generate pure culture of human-derived induced neurons (hiNs). Using this system, we

also show that BIN1 plays a key role in the regulation of neuronal calcium transients and

electrical activity via its interaction with the L-type voltage-gated calcium channel $Cav_{1.2}$.

BIN1 KO hiNs show reduced activity-dependent internalization and higher $Cav_{1.2}$ expression

compared to WT hiNs. Pharmacological treatment with clinically relevant doses of

nifedipine, a calcium channel blocker, partly rescues neuronal electrical and gene expression

alterations in *BIN1* KO glutamatergic neurons. Further, we show that transcriptional

alterations in *BIN1* KO hiNs affecting biological processes related to calcium homeostasis are

also present in glutamatergic neurons of the human brain at late stages of AD pathology.

Conclusions: Together, our findings suggest that BIN1-dependent alterations in

neuronal properties could contribute to AD pathophysiology and that treatment with low

doses of clinically approved calcium blockers should be considered as an option to dampen

disease onset and progression.

Introduction

The Bridging Integrator 1 (*BIN1*) is the second most associated genetic determinant

with the risk of late-onset Alzheimer's disease (LOAD), after the Apolipoprotein E (*APOE*)

gene [1–4]. In the adult human brain, *BIN1* is mainly expressed by oligodendrocytes,

microglial cells and glutamatergic neurons [5–7] and its expression is reduced in AD patients

compared to healthy individuals [7,8]. The consequences of this reduced BIN1 expression to

neuronal and glial cells, as well as the mechanisms by which it contributes to AD

pathogenesis remain poorly understood.

BIN1 has disputably been associated with amyloidopathy and tauopathy, two

pathological hallmarks of AD [9]. Reduced BIN1 expression results in a higher amyloid

precursor protein (APP) processing towards the production of amyloid-beta (Aβ) peptides in

Neuroblastoma Neuro2a cells [10,11]. However, we previously showed that *BIN1* knockout

(KO) does not increase the concentrations of Aβ peptides in hiPSC-derived neurons (human-

induced neurons or hiNs) despite impairing endocytic trafficking [12]. Likewise, reduced

Bin1 expression in the mouse brain does not affect the production of endogenous Aβ

peptides [13]. Concerning Tau pathology, decreased expression of the BIN1 ortholog Amph

suppress Tau-mediated neurotoxicity in Drosophila Melanogaster [14]. In contrast, reduced

BIN1 expression results in higher Tau aggregation and propagation in primary rat

hippocampal neurons [15]. In humans, higher concentrations of phosphorylated Tau are

observed in the cerebrospinal fluid of patients with AD and are significantly correlated with

genetic variants within the *BIN1* locus [16].

More recently, BIN1 has also been associated with the regulation of synaptic

transmission and neuronal electrical activity in animal models. Conditional deletion of *Bin1*

in neurons of the adult mice hippocampus leads to altered frequency of mini excitatory

post-synaptic currents (mEPSC), likely due to an impaired presynaptic release probability

and slower depletion of neurotransmitters [6]. Knockdown of *BIN1* in embryonic rat primary

cortical neurons also affects the glutamate AMPA receptor trafficking in the post-synaptic

compartment, leading to alterations in the amplitude of mEPSC [17]. Lastly, overexpression

of a BIN1-mKate2 fusion protein increases the frequency of spontaneous excitatory

postsynaptic currents (sEPSCs) in embryonic rat hippocampal cultures, seemingly by

affecting the localization of L-type voltage gated calcium channels (LVGCC) in the membrane
through a Tau-dependent interaction [18].
Despite these advances, no consensus has been reached on the roles of BIN1 in AD
pathogenesis and even its physiological functions in human brain cells remain mostly
unknown. In this work, we tackled this important question by generating and characterizing
human neural cells derived from isogenic *BIN1* wild type (WT), heterozygous (HET) and
homozygous knockout (KO) hiPSC lines. We first characterized the transcriptional profile of
human neural cells grown in three-dimensional cerebral organoids for more than 6 months
and show that reduced BIN1 expression affects mainly glutamatergic neurons. Next, we
generated pure *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs cultures and show that BIN1 cell-autonomously
regulates electrical activity and gene expression of glutamatergic neurons via the interaction
with the regulation of the LVGCC Cav$_{1.2}$. Pharmacological blockage of this channel with
nifedipine partly rescues electrical and gene expression alterations in *BIN1* KO hiNs. Our
findings suggest that BIN1 is a key regulator of calcium homeostasis in glutamatergic
neurons and that repurposing the use of clinically approved calcium channel blockers could
be a promising strategy to treat AD.

Results

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109 ***BIN1* HET and KO cerebral organoids show transcriptional alterations associated with**

110 **neuronal functional properties**

111 Cerebral organoids (COs) faithfully recapitulate fundamental aspects of the three-

112 dimensional organization of the human brain, including the molecular specification of

113 different neural cell types/subtypes and the generation of complex electrical activity

114 patterns [19,20]. To investigate the potential role of BIN1 in human neural cells, we

115 generated and characterized COs using isogenic *BIN1* wild type (WT)*,* heterozygous (HET)

116 and KO hiPSCs (Fig. 1A). After 6.5 months of culture, COs were composed of all the major

117 neural cell types identified by the expression of MAP2, GFAP and NESTIN and we did not

118 observe any gross difference in size or morphology of COs among the three genotypes (Sup.

119 Fig. 1A). Western blot analyses confirmed the reduction and absence of BIN1 protein in BIN1

120 HET and KO COs, respectively (Sup. Fig. 1B). We have then employed single-nucleus RNA

121 sequencing (snRNA-seq) to further characterize individual cell types/subtypes and

122 investigate possible gene expression alterations associated with reduced BIN1 expression.

123 COs (n=4 from each genotype) were divided into two halves that were independently

124 processed for western blotting or snRNA-seq. We observed similar expression of general

125 neuronal and glial proteins in these COs (Sup. Fig. 1C), suggesting a low degree of

126 heterogeneity in these samples. Nevertheless, to further reduce potential batch effects, we

127 pooled COs into a single multiplexed library using Cell Hashing (Stoeckius et al., 2018). After

128 sequencing, quality control and demultiplexing, we recovered 4398 singlets that could be

129 grouped into 7 major cell clusters based on the expression of cell type markers *SLC1A3*

130 *(GLAST), GFAP* and *TNC* (astrocyte); *SNAP25, DCX, MAPT* (pan-neuronal); *SLC17A7* and

131 *SLC17A6* (glutamatergic neurons); *DLX1, GAD1* and *GAD2* (GABAergic neurons); *HES6,*

132 *CCND2* and *CDK6* (NPCs); *ITGA8* (choroid plexus); and *CLIC6* (pigmented epithelium) (Fig. 1B-

133 C). *BIN1* expression in COs was mainly detected in glutamatergic neurons and

134 oligodendrocytes (Fig. 1C), similar to the profile described for the human brain [7] - except

135 for brain microglial cells that express *BIN1* but are not present in COs. We also observed a

136 reduction and enlargement, respectively, in the proportions of glutamatergic neurons and

137 astrocytes in *BIN1* KO compared to WT (Fig. 1D; ****p<0.0001; Chi-square test).

To identify possible differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in *BIN1* KO or HET compared

to WT cells, we performed Wilcoxon test for each major cell type/subtype identified in COs.

Consistent with the predominant expression of *BIN1* in glutamatergic neurons (Fig. 1D), we

identified a high number of DEGs in this cell type both in *BIN1* HET (76 genes) and KO (124

genes) compared to WT genotype (Fig. 1E; Sup. Fig. 1D). In astrocytes, we also detected 75

DEGs in *BIN1* KO, but only 6 DEGs in *BIN1* HET compared to WT (Fig. 1E; Sup. Fig. 1D). For all

other cell types, we observed a maximum of 1-4 DEGs in the comparison between KO vs WT

or HET vs WT (Sup. Table 1). These observations suggest that both BIN1 null (KO) and partial

deletion (HET) affect similar biological process in glutamatergic neurons in a dose-

dependent manner. Accordingly, similar GO terms were enriched for DEGs identified in *BIN1*

KO or HET glutamatergic neurons, including several terms associated with synaptic

transmission (Fig. 1F). For *BIN1* KO glutamatergic neurons, we also identified GO terms

associated with ion channel complex and calcium ion binding (Sup. Fig. 1E; Sup. Table 2),

further suggesting that BIN1 depletion leads to specific transcriptional changes associated

with functional properties of this neuronal subtype.

Altered expression of activity-related genes in *BIN1* KO and HET COs

Neuronal firing patterns (such as tonic and burst firing) play a key role on the

transcriptional regulation of a particular set of genes designated activity-related genes

(ARGs) [21]. While neurons stimulated with brief patterns of electrical activity transcribe

rapid primary response genes (rPRGs) or early response genes (ERGs), those stimulated with

sustained patterns of electrical activity express delayed primary response genes (dPRGs),

secondary response genes (SRGs) or late response genes (LRGs) (Fig. 2A)[22,23]. Using Cell-

ID [24], we quantified the enrichment for ARGs signatures (Sup. Table 3) in COs at single-cell

resolution as an indirect read-out of neuronal electrical activity patterns in this model. We

first confirmed that ARG signatures were predominantly enriched in neurons (Fig. 2B).

Then, we quantified the proportion of glutamatergic or GABAergic neurons significantly

enriched for such specific response gene signatures (p_{adj}<0.05; hypergeometric test). We

observed a significantly higher proportion of glutamatergic neurons enriched for dPRGs and

LRGs both in *BIN1* HET and KO, as well as SRGs in *BIN1* KO compared to WT glutamatergic

neurons, whereas the proportion of glutamatergic neurons enriched for rPRGs and ERGs

was reduced in *BIN1* HET and KO (Fig. 2C). In sharp contrast, the only difference observed in

GABAergic neurons was a reduction in the proportion of cells enriched for SRGs (Sup. Fig. 2).
These results suggest that reduced BIN1 expression in glutamatergic neurons triggers
neuronal firing patterns towards sustained activity leading to a higher expression of late-
response ARGs.

Lower numbers of synaptic *puncta* in BIN1 HET and KO COs compared to WT

Transcriptional alterations in *BIN1* HET and KO glutamatergic neurons are also
suggestive of synaptic dysfunction, which is an early hallmark of AD pathology [25]. We thus
sought to determine whether BIN1 depletion could affect synaptic connectivity in COs.
Using immunohistochemistry to detect the expression of the pre-synaptic protein
Synaptohysin-1 (SYP) and post-synaptic protein HOMER1, we were able to quantify the
frequency of putative synaptic contacts (% SYP assigned) in COs (see methods). We
observed a significant reduction in the % of SYP assigned both in *BIN1* HET and KO
compared to WT, mainly due to a reduction in the number of post-synaptic spots expressing
HOMER1 (Fig. 3A-D).

Next, we investigated whether APP processing and Tau phosphorylation, which have
been previously associated with BIN1 and are known to modulate neuronal electrical
activity [10,15,26], could also be altered in *BIN1* HET and KO COs. To this end, we measured
the intracellular levels of full-length APP and APP β-CTF (as a readout of amyloidogenic APP
processing), total and phosphorylated TAU proteins by western blotting. Besides a trend for
reduced TAU expression (Fig. 3F) likely explained by the reduced proportion of neurons, we
did not detect any significant differences in the intracellular levels of APP, APP β-CTF, TAU or
phospho-TAU (Ser202, Thr205) in *BIN1* HET and KO compared to WT COs (Fig. 3E-L).
Altogether, these results suggest that BIN1 depletion could alter neuronal functional
properties without significantly affecting APP or Tau metabolism in COs.

Cell-autonomous role of BIN1 in the regulation of neuronal gene expression

Our results in COs suggest that reduced BIN1 expression affects mainly glutamatergic
neurons. However, at least in BIN1 KO COs, we cannot completely rule out an effect of BIN1
deletion in astrocytes that could indirectly impact glutamatergic neurons. Therefore, to
unambiguously probe the cell-autonomous effect of *BIN1* deletion on the electrical activity
and gene expression of human glutamatergic neurons, we generated *BIN1* WT or KO pure

neuronal cultures by direct lineage-reprogramming of human NPCs (hNPCs) using
doxycycline-inducible expression of ASCL1 (Fig. 4A; see online methods). After validation of
the efficient lineage-reprogramming of hNPCs into highly pure neurons (hereafter ASCL1-
hiNs) (Fig. 4B), we added exogenous human cerebral cortex astrocytes to trophically support
functional neuronal maturation and synaptic connectivity [27]. Using snRNA-seq after 4
weeks of differentiation we identified 5583 cells (n=5 independent culture batches)
clustered into two main glutamatergic neuron (GluNeu-I and II), one GABAergic neuron
(GABANeu), one immature/unspecified neuron (UnspNeu), two astrocyte (Astro-I and II) and
1 proliferative NPC groups (Fig. 4C-D). Sample-level differential gene expression analysis
using DESeq2 [28], revealed 99 DEGs (|log2FC| >0.25 and FDR <0.05) in *BIN1* KO GluNeu-II
compared to WT, but only 2 in GluNeu-I and 1 in immature neurons (Fig. 4E; Sup. Table 4).
As observed in COs (Fig. 1H-I), GO term enrichment analysis revealed a significant
enrichment for terms associated with synaptic transmission, ion channel activity and
calcium signaling pathways (Fig. 4F; Sup. Table 5). The percentage of GluNeu-II enriched for
late-response ARGs was slightly greater in *BIN1* KO compared to WT, but without statistical
differences (Fig. 4G-H). Exogenously added human astrocytes co-cultured with *BIN1* WT and
KO hiNs also showed a low number of DEGs (11 in Astro-I; Sup. Table 4), likely reflecting an
astrocyte reaction to primary changes in hiNs in response to *BIN1* deletion.

BIN1 KO leads to alteration in the electrical activity pattern of ASCL1-hiNs

The transcriptional changes observed in our 2D and 3D models could suggest that
reduced BIN1 expression is associated with altered electrical properties of glutamatergic
neurons. To directly address this possibility, we used multi-electrode arrays (MEA) to record
and quantify multi-unit activity (MUA) in ASCL1-hiNs. As previously described in
spontaneously differentiated hiPSC-derived neuronal cultures [29], ASCL1-hiNs cells
exhibited a diverse range of spontaneous activity patterns, including regular discharges,
population bursts and period activity (Fig. 5A). In this respect, we found a conspicuous
change in the temporal organization of MUA after *BIN1* deletion (Fig. 5A), mainly
characterized by a greater number of spike bursts at 4 weeks (Fig. 5D). These alterations
may result from changes at the single cell or the population level (different number of
neurons contributing to each electrode, for example). To disentangle these possibilities, we
used waveform-based spike sorting to examine the functional consequences of *BIN1*

deletion at the single neuronal level (Fig. 6A). We identified a similar number of single units
per recording electrode between genotypes (WT: 4.92±2.34; KO: 5.27±2.45), indicating that
BIN1 deletion does not affect the density of active neurons within culture. However, we
observed reduced single-unit activity (SUA) frequency (Fig. 6B) and higher SUA amplitude
(Fig. 6C) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs. Interestingly, we could not detect
significant changes in the number of bursts per neuron (WT: 11.01±6.71; KO: 10.36±8.59),
although both the burst duration and the number of spikes within a burst were significantly
lower in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 6D-E). We also observed a prominent
temporal disorganization of *BIN1* KO hiNs activity by computing the array-wide spike
detection rate (ASDR, Fig. 6G), which reveals the strength of the synchronized population
activity, and the autocorrelograms of SUAs (Fig. 6H-I), which allows the apprehension of
synchronized periodicity. These analyses revealed that most spikes of *BIN1* WT neurons
were organized in bursts occurring at periodic intervals of about 8-10 s, whereas the spikes
of *BIN1* KO neurons were randomly distributed, leading to a higher percentage of spikes
occurring outside of bursts compared to WT neurons (Fig. 6J).
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Altered electrical activity of *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs is associated with normal synapse
numbers and altered TAU phosphorylation
These changes in neural network activity observed in *BIN1* KO hiNs could be explained,
among other things, by a reduced synaptic connectivity, as observed in our long-term COs
cultures (Fig. 3). To test this possibility, we first quantified the number of synaptic contacts
in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures. In contrast with COs, we did not detect any
significant differences in the number of putative synaptic contacts (% SYP assigned) in *BIN1*
KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs, neither after 4 nor 6 weeks of differentiation (Fig. 7A-D).
Next, we quantified the number and activity of glutamatergic synapses by using real-time
imaging of ASCL1-hiNs expressing the glutamate sensor iGLUSnFr [30]. In accordance with
our observations based on immunocytochemistry, we did not detect differences neither in
the number of glutamatergic synapses (active spots) nor in the frequency of events (change
in fluorescence levels in active spots) in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Sup. Fig. 3;
Sup. Movies 1 and 2), indicating that changes in neuronal activity observed in our cultures
are not related to changes in synaptic transmission.

Taking advantage of this culture system comprising enriched neuronal populations, we

also sought to confirm whether BIN1 deletion could be associated with changes in APP

processing or Tau phosphorylation. To this end, we measured the extracellular levels of

amyloid-beta (Aβ) peptides, as well as the intracellular levels of full-length APP and APP β-

CTF, total and phosphorylated TAU proteins in ASCL1-hiNs cultures. Like COs, we did not

detect any significant differences neither in the extracellular levels of Aβ1-x or Aβ1-42, nor

in the intracellular levels of APP or APP β-CTF in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Sup.

Fig. 4). However, in contrast with our observations in COs, we observed significantly higher

levels of phospho-TAU (Ser202, Thr205) relative to β-ACTIN and total TAU in in *BIN1* KO

compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 7E-F). Together, these observations may suggest that *BIN1*

deletion primarily impairs neuronal intrinsic properties regulating electrical activity and Tau

phosphorylation prior to detectable changes in synaptic communication (observed only in

long-term cultures) and independently of alterations in APP processing.

BIN1 regulates neuronal Ca^{2+} dynamics through LVGCCs

In neurons, electrical activity is always accompanied by an influx of Ca2+ ions, which

play a fundamental role in the regulation of neuronal firing and activity-dependent gene

transcription [31]. We therefore postulated that reduced BIN1 expression in human

glutamatergic neurons could affect Ca2+ dynamics, as previously suggested for

cardiomyocytes [32]. To directly test this possibility, we first studied Ca^{2+} dynamics in *BIN1*

WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs using real-time calcium imaging experiments. We observed

spontaneous synchronous calcium transients among adjacent cells both in *BIN1* WT and KO

ASCL1-hiNs cultures (Sup. Movies 3 and 4). By quantifying calcium spike transients (> 2

standard deviations above the noise level) we showed a significantly higher frequency of

Ca^{2+} transients in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 8A,B and D). Moreover, the

dynamics of individual Ca^{2+} transients in *BIN1* KO were qualitatively different from WT

ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 8C). These differences could be quantitatively measured by a longer time to

reach the maximum intracellular Ca^{2+} levels and to recover baseline levels (Fig. 8E-F).

In human heart failure, BIN1 expression is reduced, leading to an impairment in Cav1.2

trafficking, calcium transients, and contractility (Hong et al., 2012). Thus, we sought to

determine if BIN1 could also interact and regulate LVGCC expression in human neurons. To

that, we performed proximity ligation assay (PLA) to probe a possible interaction between

BIN1 and $Cav1_2$ or $Cav_{1.3}$, the two LVGCCs expressed in ASCL1-hiNs (Sup. Fig. 5). We

observed a widespread BIN1-$Cav_{1.2}$ PLA signal (Fig. 8G) and, to a lesser extent, a BIN1-$Cav_{1.3}$

PLA signals in neurons (Sup. Fig. 5). Next, we quantified neuronal LVGCC protein by western

blotting and observed higher total $Cav_{1.2}$ expression in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs

(Fig. 8H-I). Protein expression of neither $Cav_{1.3}$, nor the members of the Cav_2 family ($Cav_{2.1}$,

$Cav_{2.2}$ and $Cav_{2.3}$) were altered in the same cultures (Sup. Fig. 5), suggesting a specific

regulation of $Cav_{1.2}$ expression by BIN1.

Notably, LVGCCs are key regulators of neuronal firing [29] and activity-dependent

internalization of these channels is a key mechanism in firing homeostasis [33]. We thus set

out to investigate whether *BIN1* deletion could impair this mechanism in human neurons.

We stimulated ASCL1-hiNs with KCl 65nM for 30 min to induce neuronal depolarization and

collected total and endosomal proteins for analysis. We confirmed a higher global level of

$Cav_{1.2}$ in *BIN1* KO compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs that was independent of KCl treatment (Fig.

8J). However, $Cav_{1.2}$ expression in the endosomal fraction was 50% higher after KCl

treatment in *BIN1* WT, whereas this rise was only of 10% in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 8K).

This effect was specific for $Cav_{1.2}$ since both early endosome antigen 1 (EEA1) and $Cav_{1.3}$

expression rose in both *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs at similar levels after KCl treatment

(Fig. 8K). Altogether, these results indicate that BIN1 regulates activity-dependent

internalization and expression of $Cav_{1.2}$ in human neurons.

Treatment with the calcium channel blocker nifedipine partly rescues electrical and

gene expression alterations in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs

To investigate whether the network dysfunctions observed in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs may

be related to the higher expression of $Cav_{1.2}$, we treated these cells with a physiologically

relevant concentration (50nM) of the $Cav_{1.2}$ blocker nifedipine [34]) for 2 weeks and

recorded neuronal activity using MEA electrophysiology. We observed a partial recovery of

the oscillatory pattern of neuronal electrical activity observed in WT cells (Fig. 9A).

Interestingly, the percentage of spikes outside bursts was not affected by nifedipine

treatment in *BIN1* WT but was significantly lower in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs (Fig. 9B), indicating

a partial recovery of burst organization. To note, no difference in firing rates was observed

whatever the models and conditions (Fig. 9C). After 2 weeks of nifedipine treatment (4

weeks of differentiation), we also performed snRNA-seq experiments and recovered a total

of 1537 cells (n= 2 independent culture batches), which were mapped into the 7 clusters

described before (Fig. 4; Sup. Figure 6). Using Wilcoxon test, we found that nifedipine

treatment down-regulated several genes in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs, especially in the GluNeu-II

population (Sup. Table 6). Comparison of GO term enrichments between nifedipine-treated

and untreated *BIN1* KO vs WT GluNeu-II population revealed a consistent reduction of the

enrichment for several terms associated with ion channel activity and synapse transmission

in nifedipine-treated BIN1 KO cells (Figure 9D; Sup. Table 7). Altogether, these data support

the view that BIN1 contributes to the regulation of electrical activity and gene expression

through the regulation of $Cav_{1.2}$ expression/localization in human neurons.

Molecular alterations in *BIN1* KO organoids and ASCL-hiNshiNs are also present in

glutamatergic neurons of the human brain at late stages of AD pathology

We finally sought to evaluate whether molecular alterations in our neural models may

recapitulate some of those observed in the brain of AD cases. For this purpose, we used a

publicly available snRNA-seq dataset generated from the entorhinal cortex (EC) and superior

frontal gyrus (SFG) of AD patients at different Braak stages [35]. We first observed a

progressive and significant decrease in BIN1 mRNA levels in glutamatergic neurons (Fig.

10A), suggesting that reduced BIN1 expression in this cell type may be a common feature

occurring in the AD pathology progression. We then compared DEGs identified in BIN1 KO

glutamatergic neurons (either from COs or ASCL1-hiNs) with those identified in the same

cell subtype of AD brains (Sup. Table 8). Remarkably, DEGs identified in *BIN1* KO

glutamatergic neurons (either from COs or ASCL1-hiNs) showed a statistically significant

overlap with DEGs detected in this cell population in AD brains at different Braak stages (Fig.

10B). In astrocytes, however, a similar significant overlap could only be observed between

COs and AD brains (Fig. 10B). GO analysis based on DEG overlap between *BIN1* KO ASCL1-

hiNs and AD brain glutamatergic neurons indicated significant enrichment for pathways

associated with glutamate receptor activity and gated channel activity (Fig. 10C; Sup. Table

7). Similarly, DEG overlap between *BIN1* KO COs and AD brain glutamatergic neurons was

significantly enriched for genes associated with glutamate receptor activity, gated channel

activity and calcium ion binding (Fig. 10D; Sup. Table 7). No significant enrichment was

observed for DEG overlap between *BIN1* KO COs and AD brain astrocytes (data not shown).

Discussion

In this work, we show that the AD genetic risk factor *BIN1*, plays a critical role in the
regulation of neuronal firing homeostasis and gene expression in glutamatergic neurons.
Complete deletion of *BIN1* gene in these neurons is sufficient to alter the expression of the
LVGCC Cav$_{1.2}$, leading to altered calcium homeostasis and neural network dysfunctions in
human neurons *in vitro*. These functional changes are correlated with changes in the
expression of genes involved in synaptic transmission and ion transport across the
membrane, as well as elevated Tau phosphorylation. In long-term neuronal cultures using
COs, we show that reduced BIN1 expression is associated with fewer synapses and specific
gene expression alterations in glutamatergic neurons associated with activity-dependent
transcription. Notably, reduced BIN1 expression in human-induced glutamatergic neurons is
sufficient to elicit gene expression alterations that are also present in AD and converge to
biological processes related with calcium homeostasis. Together, our findings support the
view that altered BIN1 expression in glutamatergic neurons may contribute to AD
pathophysiology by dysregulating neuronal firing homeostasis via LVGCCs.

Neuronal network dysfunctions are observed in AD patients at early stages of the
disease and precede or coincide with cognitive decline [36–38]. Under physiological
conditions, neuronal networks can maintain optimal output through regulation of synaptic
plasticity and firing rate [39]. Our results suggest that normal levels of BIN1 expression in
glutamatergic neurons are fundamental to regulating neuronal firing rate homeostasis.
Accordingly, *BIN1* deletion in hiNs is sufficient to dysregulate network oscillations even
without impacting the number of functional synaptic contacts, suggesting that the
desynchronization observed in *BIN1* KO hiNs circuits are a consequence of disordered
homeostatic controls of neuronal activity. At later time-points (COs), glutamatergic neurons
show both gene expression alterations indicative of altered electrical activity and reduced
synaptic densities, which could indicate a synaptic down-scaling in response to earlier
augmented electrical activity (Dörrbaum et al., 2020).

One key mechanism controlling neuronal spiking activity is the regulation of Ca^{2+}

homeostasis [29,31,40]. Boosted neuronal electrical activity induces the turnover of LVGCCs

from the plasma membrane through endocytosis [33] and regulates the transcription of

genes encoding for calcium-binding proteins and calcium-mediated signaling [41],

mechanisms aiming to restore local Ca^{2+} signaling cascades and protect cells against

aberrant Ca^{2+} influx. We show that BIN1 interacts with $Cav_{1.2}$ in hiNs, similar to previous

findings in cardiac T tubules [32] and provide evidence supporting a novel role for BIN1 in

the regulation of activity-dependent internalization of $Cav_{1.2}$ in human neurons, thus linking

the known role of BIN1 in endocytosis [12] to firing homeostasis in human neurons via the

LVGCC. These results confirm in human neurons the interaction between endogenous

neuronal BIN1 and $Cav_{1.2}$ as previously suggested in mouse hippocampal neurons,

overexpressing a Bin1-mKate fused protein [18].

Loss of Ca^{2+} homeostasis is an important feature of many neurological diseases and

has been extensively described in AD [42,43]. Interestingly, DEGs identified in *BIN1* KO

glutamatergic neurons in our different cell culture models are enriched for calcium-related

biological processes. This is also observed for DEGs detected in glutamatergic neurons of the

AD brain at late stages of pathology when the expression levels of BIN1 in those cells is also

decreased. Thus, it is plausible to speculate that reduced expression of *BIN1* in

glutamatergic neurons may contribute to the breakdown of Ca^{2+} homeostasis in the AD

brain, potentially contributing to neuronal circuit dysfunctions. Consistent with this

hypothesis, we have previously shown a significant reduction in the expression of the

transcript encoding for the neuron-specific BIN1 isoform 1 in bulk RNA-sequencing data

from a large number of AD patients [7] and we show in this work that *BIN1* expression is

reduced in glutamatergic neurons of AD brains at late Braak stages. Moreover, it has been

recently shown that Bin1 conditional knockout in neurons and glial cells of the mouse

forebrain is sufficient to elicit gene expression changes associated with calcium-dependent

mechanisms (Ponnusamy et al., 2022), further supporting the interpretation that BIN1 plays

an important role in cellular processes involved in Ca^{2+} homeostasis in the brain.

Lastly, we show that treatment with the clinically approved calcium channel blocker

nifedipine for only 2 weeks is sufficient to partly recover electrical and gene expression

alterations in *BIN1* KO hiNs. These findings further support our interpretation that changes

in gene expression and electrical activity observed in *BIN1* HET and KO hiNs are a direct

consequence of reduced BIN1 expression in glutamatergic neurons and not a possible
artifact of CRISPR/Cas9 gene-editing in our hiPSC lines. Moreover, together with our
observations of reduced BIN1 expression and transcriptional alterations affecting biological
processes related to calcium homeostasis in human-induced glutamatergic neurons of the
human brain at late stages of AD pathology, our data strongly support a link between BIN1
and calcium homeostasis.

Thus, it is plausible to speculate that *BIN1* depletion in glutamatergic neurons
primarily undermines Ca^{2+} homeostasis, leading to changes in neuronal electrical activity. In
a later stage, gene expression and circuit-level alterations such as synapse loss would occur,
likely because of altered neuronal electrical activity. A corollary to this model would be that
early treatments aiming to restore Ca^{2+} homeostasis and neuronal electrical activity may
have a beneficial impact in AD onset and progression. Supporting this notion, both a
Mendelian randomization and a retrospective population-based cohort study found
evidence suggesting that treatment with Ca^{2+} channel blockers in human patients are
associated with a reduced risk of AD [44,45]. In the future, it would be interesting to study
the impact of these drugs for AD onset/progress as a function of genetic variants in the *BIN1*
locus.

An important limitation of our work is the absence of microglial cells in our models,
hampering the study of BIN1 roles in this cell type of high relevance to AD pathology [46].
However, our findings provide fundamental information about the molecular and cellular
processes impacted by reduced BIN1 expression in human neurons, which will require
further confirmation in the brain of patients carrying AD-related *BIN1* genetic variants.
Moreover, we studied the impact of heterozygous and knockout mutations, which do not
necessarily represent the consequences of AD-related *BIN1* genetic variants in gene
expression. Nevertheless, it is tempting to speculate that slight changes in *BIN1* expression
provoked by those variants could progressively deteriorate neuronal functions in the human
brain, contributing to AD pathogenesis in the elderly brain.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The datasets used and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

Conceptualization, M.R.C.; Methodology, M.R.C., F.D., D.K., C.M.Q.; Investigation,

M.R.C., O.S., B.S.L., A.R.M.F., J.G., A.C., A.P., D.S.W., F.D., K.G., D.K., A.C.V., C.M.Q.; Writing -

Original Draft, M.R.C.; Writing - Reviews & Editing, M.R.C., F.D., J.C.L., C.M.Q., D.K.; Figures

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Similar transcriptional changes in glutamatergic neurons from 6.5-month-

old *BIN1* HET and KO COs. (A) Scheme of the experimental design. (B) UMAP representation

of the different cell subtypes in COs identified using snRNA-seq. (C) Dot plot representing

the expression for *BIN1* and key markers used to annotate cell subtypes. (D) Proportion of

cell subpopulations in the three genotypes (****p<0.0001; Chi-squared test). (E) Volcano

plots representing DEGs comparing HET vs WT or KO vs WT in astrocytes and glutamatergic

neurons. DEGs with adjusted p-value <0.05 and |log2FC| >0.25 are shown in red. (H)

Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs commonly identified in HET and KO glutamatergic

neurons. GO: gene ontology; BP: biological processes; CC: cellular components; MF:

molecular function.

Figure 2: Altered expression of activity-related genes in BIN1 HET and KO

glutamatergic neurons. (A) Scheme indicating the different sets of ARGs regulated by brief

and sustained patterns of electrical activity [22,23]. rPRGs: rapid primary response genes;

dPRGs: delayed primary response genes; SRGs: secondary response genes; ERGs: early

response genes; LRGs: late response genes; Exc – glutamatergic neurons; Inh – GABAergic

neurons. (B) Feature plots showing the enrichment score of single cells for ARG signatures.

Enrichment scores correspond to the $-\log10(p_{adj})$ of the Cell-ID-based enrichment test. (C)

Proportions of glutamatergic neurons (right) enriched for the different ARG signatures

according to genotype (*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; Chi-squared test).

Figure 3: Reduced synaptic numbers in BIN1 HET and KO cerebral organoids. (A)

Immunohistochemistry for HOMER1 (red), SYP (green) in 6.5-month-old *BIN1* WT, HET and

KO COs. Insert (A') illustrates the identification of putative synaptic contacts. (B-D)

Quantifications of the SYP and HOMER1 spot density, and the percentage of SYP assigned by

HOMER1 spots in *BIN1* WT, HET and KO COs ([#]p<0.1; *p<0.05; **p<0.01; Dunn's multiple

comparison test; n=3 COs per genotype). (E) Western blot for total TAU protein C-terminal

(TAU-C), phosphorylated (p)-TAU at Ser202, Thr205 (AT8) and β-ACTIN in 6.5-month-old

COs. (F-H) Quantification of TAU-C/β-ACTIN, p-TAU/β-ACTIN and p-TAU/TAU-C levels

normalized to WT ([#]p<0.1; Mann-Whitney test; n=3 COs per genotype). (I) Western blot for

APP and β-ACTIN in 6.5-month-old COs. (J-L) Quantification of APP/β-ACTIN, β-CTF/β-ACTIN
and β-CTF /APP levels normalized to WT (n=3 COs per genotype).

Figure 4: Neuronal-specific BIN1 KO cell-autonomously elicit transcriptional changes.
(A) Scheme of the Ascl1-induced hiNs experiments. (B) Images showing BIN1 WT and KO
hiNs 7 days after the beginning of doxycycline treatment immunolabeled for neuronal
markers MAP2 and TUBB3 and astrocyte marker GFAP and stained with DAPI. (C) UMAP
representation of the different cell subtypes identified in ASCL1-hiNs cultures using snRNA-
seq. (D) Dot plot representing expression of key markers used to annotate cell subtypes. (E)
Volcano plot representing DEGs comparing BIN1 KO vs WT glutamatergic neurons (GluNeu-
II). Differential expression analysis was performed using DEseq2 on the sample level gene
expression matrix, including the experiment batch as covariates. DEGs with adjusted p-value
<0.05 and |log2FC| >0.25 are shown in red. Gene labels are shown for calcium- and
synapse-related genes. (F) Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs identified in
glutamatergic neurons. Bar plots representing the top 15 the enriched GO terms in each
category at adjusted p-value <0.01. (G) UMAP representing GluNeu-II enrichment for
delayed Primary Response Genes (dPRGs) and Secondary Responses Genes (SRGs)
(Tyssowski et al., 2018). Red point indicate enrichment with adjusted p-value<0.05,
hypergeometric test using CellID. (H) Barplot of the percentage of enriched GluNeu-II cells
by genotype for each gene sets.

Figure 5: *BIN1* KO ASCL-hiNs have a higher spike burst frequency compared to WT.
(A) Raster plots showing MUA recorded for 1 minute in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs after 4
weeks of differentiation. Each line represents one electrode localized side-by-side in our
microfluidic/MEA array (as in panel A). (B-C) Quantification of the number of detected
spikes at different time points (*p=0.0141; ***p=0.0006; Two-way ANOVA followed by
Tukey's multiple-comparison test; n= 5 for each genotype). (D) Quantification of the number
of spike bursts at different time points (**p=0.004; [#]p=0.0888; Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 6: Disorganization of neuronal activity in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Raster plots
showing the decomposition of multi-unity activity (MUA, black lines) into single-unit activity
(SUA, colored lines) using spike waveform clustering. (B-E) Quantification of single-neuron

firing rate (B; **p=0.0034), spike amplitude (C; *p=0.0106), burst duration (D;
****p<0.0001) and number of spikes per burst (E; ****p<0.0001) at 4 weeks. Mann-
Whitney test; n= 5 independent experiments; WT: 376 neurons; KO: 416 neurons). (F) Raster
plots showing SUA recorded from 5 different electrodes of *BIN1* WT (left) or KO (right) ASCL-
hiNs cultures after 4 weeks of differentiation. (G) Array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR)
plots based on SUA recorded in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures. Each line represents
one independent culture batch. (H-I) Normalized autocorrelogram heatmap (H, each line
refers to one SUA) and averaged correlation (I) for all SUAs recorded in 5 independent *BIN1*
WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures. (J) Percentage of spikes outside of bursts (*p=0.0417,
Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 7: Similar synaptic density and higher TAU phosphorylation in *BIN1* KO
compared to WT ASCL1-hiNs. (A-B) Immunocytochemistry using the astrocyte marker GFAP,
neuronal marker MAP2, pre-synaptic marker SYP and post-synaptic marker HOMER1 in *BIN1*
WT ASCL1-hiNs after 4 weeks of differentiation in a three-chamber microfluidic device. Scale
bar = 200 μm. Rectangular box in A is magnified in B, allowing the identification of putative
synaptic contacts. (C-D) Fraction of SYP spots assigned by HOMER1 spots in MAP2 processes
at 4 (C) and 6 weeks (D) ASCL1-hiNs cultures (n= 8 independent devices for each genotype).
(E) Western blot for total TAU protein C-terminal (TAU-C), phosphorylated (p)-TAU at
Ser202, Thr205 (AT8) and β-ACTIN in 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs cultures. (F) Quantification of
TAU-C/β-ACTIN and p-TAU/TAU-C levels in BIN1 KO ASCL1-hiNs normalized to WT
(*p=0.0262; Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 8: Altered frequency of calcium transients in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A)
Snapshot of a 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs culture labeled with Oregon green BAPTA. (B)
Representative plot of fluorescence change over time in 1000 frames. (C) Representative
traces showing the fluorescence changes in *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-hiNs. Red dashed lines
indicate the time to reach the fluorescence maximal intensity (raising time - t1) and to
return to baseline (recovery time - t2). (D) Quantification of calcium transients in *BIN1* WT
and KO ASCL1-hiNs (****p<0.0001; Mann-Whitney test; n= 3 independent cultures for each
genotype; number of active cells per condition: 754 (WT), 1006 (KO)). (E-F) Quantification of
rising time (t1) and recovery time (t2) for calcium transients (**p=0.0022; ****p<0.0001;

Mann-Whitney test). (G) Images showing PLA spots using anti-BIN1 and anti-Cav$_{1.2}$

antibodies in 4-week-old *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs. Cells were also immunolabeled for the

neuronal marker MAP2 (green), the astrocyte marker GFAP (white), and stained with DAPI

(blue). (H) Western blot for Cav1.2 (without and with blocking peptide) and β-ACTIN in 4-

week-old ASCL1-hiNs cultures. (I) Quantification of Cav1.2/β-ACTIN levels in *BIN1* WT and

KO ASCL1-hiNs cultures (*p=0.0286; Unpaired t-test). (J) Western blot for Cav$_{1.2}$ and β-ACTIN

in the total protein extracts from 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs treated with KCl (+) or vehicle (-).

Plot shows the quantification of Cav$_{1.2}$ normalized by β-ACTIN. (K) Western blot for Cav$_{1.2}$,

Cav$_{1.3}$ and EEA1 in the endosomal protein extracts from 4-week-old ASCL1-hiNs treated with

KCl (+) or vehicle (-). Plot shows the optical density of these proteins (****p<0.0001; Chi-

square test).

Figure 9: Nifedipine treatment partly rescues electrical and gene expression

alteration in BIN1 KO hiNs. (A) Auto-correlograms of 4-week-old *BIN1* WT and KO hiNs

treated or not with 50 nM Nifedipine for 2 weeks. (B) Percentage of spikes outside of bursts

(WT vs WT+NIF: **p$_{adj}$=0.0034; WT vs KO: *p$_{adj}$=0.0124; Dunn's multiple comparison test).

(C) Average firing rates. (D) Comparison of the enrichment for GO terms in genes

upregulated in KO vs WT and KO + nifedipine (NIF) vs WT GluNeu-II using fast gene set

enrichment analysis (FGSEA). The FGSEA results are shown for the top15 GO terms with

reduce enrichment in KO NIF.

Figure 10: Similar molecular alterations in *BIN1* KO hiNs and glutamatergic neurons

of the AD brain. (A) Box plot representing *BIN1* mRNA in expression through different Braak

stages in entorhinal cortex (EC) and superior frontal gyrus (SFG) (***p$_{adj}$<0.001; Wilcoxon

test). (B) Dot plot representing the overlap between DEGs identified in glutamatergic

neurons of the AD brain and *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiN cultures (left) or *BIN1* KO COs (right). (C-D)

Network representation of enriched GO terms in overlapping DEGs between AD brains and

glutamatergic neurons in culture. Enriched GO terms were identified using over-

representation test.

Supplementary data

Sup. Figure 1: Cellular and molecular characterization of 6.5-month-old cerebral
organoids. (A) Immunohistochemistry for GFAP (red), MAP2 (green) and DAPI (blue) in 6.5-
month-old *BIN1* WT, HET and KO COs. (B) Western blots showing the isoforms of BIN1
detected in WT, WT, the reduced expression in HET, and the absence of BIN1 protein in KO
COs. (C) Western blots showing the expression of neuronal (TAU and vGLUT2) and astrocytic
(GFAP) proteins in 14 individual COs at 190 days, including some of the BIN1 WT, HET and
KO samples used for snRNA-seq. Note the low variability in protein expression. (D) Volcano
plots representing DEGs comparing HET vs WT or KO vs WT in astrocytes and glutamatergic
neurons. DEGs with adjusted p-value <0.05 and |log2FC| >0.25 are shown in red. Gene
labels are shown for top 10 genes in terms of log2FoldChange and p-value. (E) (H) Functional
enrichment analysis showing the top 15 significantly enriched GOs for DEGs identified in the
BIN1 KO vs WT or HET vs WT glutamatergic neurons. GO: gene ontology; BP: biological
processes; CC: cellular components; MF: molecular function.

Sup. Figure 2: Reduced BIN1 expression does not enhance activity-dependent
transcription in GABAergic neurons. A-B) Proportions of GABAergic neurons enriched for
the different ARG signatures according to genotype (*p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001; Chi-
squared test).

Sup. Figure 3: Normal glutamatergic transmission in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. Box plots
show the number of active spots per neuron and number of events detected by time-lapse
video-microscopy in 4- or 6-week-old ASCL1-hiNs cultures transduced with the glutamate
sensor iGLUSnFr (4 weeks: n= 378 BIN1 WT and 266 BIN1 KO ASCL1-hiNs; 6 weeks: n= 685
BIN1 WT and 629 BIN1 KO ASCL1-hiNs).

Sup. Figure 4: Normal APP processing in *BIN1* KO ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Western blots
showing the expression of APP full-length, β-CTF and β-ACTIN at 4 weeks. (B) Quantification

of the ratios APP/β-ACTIN, β-CTF /β-ACTIN and β-CTF/APP (n = 5 for each genotype). (C)

Quantification of soluble Aβ_{1-x}, Aβ_{1-42} and the ratio Aβ_{1-42}/ Aβ_{1-x} in ASCL1-hiNs cultures at 3

and 4 weeks.

Sup. Figure 5: Expression of voltage-gated calcium channels in ASCL1-hiNs. (A) Violin

plots showing the mRNA levels of Cav1 and Cav2 members of the voltage-gated calcium

channel families L-type, P/Q-type, N-type and R-type detected in ASCL1 hiNs. (B) Images

showing PLA spots using anti-BIN1 and anti-Cav1.3 antibodies in 4-week-old *BIN1* WT hiNs.

Cells were also immunolabeled for the neuronal marker MAP2 (green), the astrocyte marker

GFAP (white), and stained with DAPI (blue). (C) Western blots showing the expression of

Cav1.3, Cav2.1, Cav2.2, Cav2.3 and β-ACTIN in 4-week-old ASCL1h hiNs. (D) Quantification of

protein expression.

Sup. Figure 6: snRNAseq of nifedipine treated ASCL1-hiNs cultures. (A) UMAP of the

n=2 nifedipine experiments integrated with the other hiNs snRNA-seq experiments. (B)

correlation between the differential gene expression in untreated *BIN1* KO + vehicle vs WT

(x axis, DEGs are plotted in red) and in *BIN1* KO + nifedipine (nif) vs WT. Calcium- and

synapse-related genes upregulated in *BIN1* KO + vehicle vs WT are labeled if the genes are

not upregulated in KO + nif vs WT. (C) Plot showing the total number of DEGs identified in

BIN1 KO ASCL1-hiNs treated or not with nifedipine.

Sup. Movies 1 and 2: Time-series of 1000 frames taken from *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-

hiNs transduced with iGLUSnFr after 2 weeks of differentiation and imaged 2 weeks later.

Videos are played at 100 fps.

Sup. Movies 3 and 4: Time-series of 1000 frames taken from *BIN1* WT and KO ASCL1-

hiNs after 4 weeks of differentiation and labeled with Oregon Green BAPTA and imaged.

Videos are played at 100 frames per second (fps).

Sup. Table 1: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of COs.

Sup. Table 2: GO terms enriched for DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of

COs.

Sup. Table 3: List of ARGs used for hypergeometric test in Cell-ID.

Sup. Table 4: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of ASCL1-hiNs cultures.

Sup. Table 5: GO terms enriched for DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of

ASCL1-hiNs cultures.

Sup. Table 6: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of ASCL1-hiNs cultures

treated with nifedipine.

Sup. Table 7: GO terms enriched for DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of

ASCL1-hiNs cultures treated with nifedipine.

Sup. Table 8: DEGs identified in different cell types/subtypes of the AD brain.

Sup. Table 9: GO terms enriched for DEGs commonly identified in *BIN1* HET or KO cells

and the AD brain.

Materials and methods

Maintenance of isogenic hiPSC lines and neural induction

Isogenic hiPSCs (ASE 9109, Applied StemCell Inc. CA, USA) modified for BIN1 in exon 3

were generated by CRISPR/Cas9. Homozygous null mutants for BIN1 had a 5 bp deletion on

one allele and an 8 bp deletion on the other allele. Heterozygous for BIN1 had a 1bp

insertion on one allele. All hiPSCs, and all subsequent human induced neural progenitor cells

(hiNPCs), hiNs, human induced astrocytes (hiAs), and cerebral organoids derived thereof,

were maintained in media from Stemcell Technologies, Vancouver, Canada. Maintenance of

cell cultures and organoids were done in adherence with manufacturer's protocols which

can be found on the webpage of Stemcell Technologies. hiPSCs were maintained in mTeSR1

medium in non-treated cell culture dishes/plates pre-coated with vitronectin. Cell numbers

and viability were recorded using a LUNA™ Automated Cell Counter.

To generate *BIN1* WT and KO hiNPCs, we used the dual SMAD-inhibition (SMADi)

method (Chambers et al., 2009). Briefly, hiPSCs are cultured and passaged for 3 times in

STEMdiff™ Neural Induction Medium + SMADi (Stemcell Technologies) for up to 3 weeks.

After this period, hiNPCS are maintained for up to 10 passages in treated cell culture dishes

pre-coated with poly-L-ornithine (PLO) and laminin (5 µg/mL), using STEMdiff™ Neural

Progenitor Medium (NPM; Stemcell Technologies). PLO solution was made in water

(0.001%) while laminin was diluted in PBS with Ca2+ and Mg2+.

Generation of Cerebral Organoids

Cerebral organoids (3D Cultures) were generated from *BIN1* WT, HET and KO hiPSCs

using a 4-stage protocol (Lancaster et al., 2013). The first step was the Embryoid Body (EB)

Formation Stage, where hiPCSc at 80%-90% confluency were detached from the Vitronectin

XF substrate using Accutase (#AT-104, Innovative Cell Technologies). To form the EB, 9000

cells were plated per well in a 96-well round-bottom ultra-low attachment plate containing

EB seeding medium (Stem Cell Technologies). At day 2 and day 4, EB formation media is

added in the wells. After five days, the EBs were transferred to a 24-well ultra-low

attachment plate containing Induction Medium (Stem Cell Technologies), where each well

receives 1-2 EBs. Two days later, the EBs were ready for the Expansion Stage. The EBs were

embedded in Matrigel (Corning) and transferred to a 24-well ultra-low adherent plate with

Expansion Medium (Stem Cell Technologies). After three days, the medium was replaced by

Maturation Medium (Stem Cell Technologies) and the plate was placed in an orbital shaker

(100 rpm speed). During this final Maturation Phase, 75% medium change was done on a

biweekly basis. Organoids were allowed to mature for a period of 6.5 months.

Generation of pure human neuronal cultures from hiNPCs

We differentiated neurons from virus-transduced hiNPCs according to an adapted

protocol (Zhang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2017). Briefly, hiNPCs are first virally-transduced

with the TTA lentiviral construct and a passage later, the TetO-Ascl1-Puro lentiviral construct

was transduced. These cells are maintained in NPM medium and expanded prior to

differentiation. For differentiation of human induced neurons (hiNs), hiNPCs are plated onto

PLO/laminin-coated imaging plates at density 100,000 cells/well in NPM. After 24 h,

complete BrainPhys medium (StemCell Technologies) is added 1:1 together with 2 µg/mL

doxycycline (Sigma-Aldrich) to induce TetO gene expression. The following day, 1 µg/mL

puromycin (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to start cell selection. After 2-3 days (depending on

the efficiency of antibiotic selection), 50,000 human cortical astrocytes were added in each

well with BrainPhys containing doxycycline. After 24 h, 2 µM of Ara-C (Cytosine β-D-

arabinofuranoside; Sigma-Aldrich) was added to arrest the proliferation of astrocytes. Half

of the medium in each well was changed biweekly with fresh BrainPhys medium containing

doxycycline until the 14th day. After that, the biweekly medium change was performed only

with BrainPhys. Differentiation was allowed to continue for another 2-4 weeks prior to

subjecting the cells to various experimental manipulations. Human cortical astrocytes (HA;

ScienCell # 1800) were sourced from ScienCell Research Laboratories, CA, USA and grown up

to 10 passages on poly-l-lysine coated 75 cm^2 flasks using astrocyte medium (ScienCell #

1801) supplemented with astrocyte growth supplement (AGS, ScienCell #1852) and 10 ml of

fetal bovine serum (ScienCell # 1800).

This co-culture system was characterized using snRNA-seq after 4 weeks of
differentiation showing that 70% of cells (n=7120 from 5 independent culture batches)
expressed the pan-neuronal markers SOX11, SNAP25, DCX and RBFOX3, with 66% of cells
co-expressing the glutamatergic neuron marker SLC17A6, less than 1.5% of cells co-
expressing the GABAergic neuron markers DLX1, GAD1 and GAD2, and 5% of cells co-
expressing low levels of markers of both neuronal subtypes. The remaining cells, immature
astrocytes (Astro-I), mature astrocytes (Astro-II) and undifferentiated NPCs, represented
about 15%, 8%, 4% of the cells, respectively. The first two cell populations likely represent
two different states of astrocytes added to the cultures, whereas NPCs are likely cells that
failed to reprogram into hiNs despite ASCL1 transduction. Thus, neuronal classes generated
in this system comprise a large fraction of glutamatergic neurons (84%), a small proportion
of GABAergic neurons (2.5%) and unspecified neurons co-expressing low levels of markers
of both neuronal subtypes (13.5%).

Culture of hiNs in Microfluidic Devices

Three-compartment microfluidic neuron culture devices were used in which the
presynaptic and postsynaptic chambers are connected to the synaptic chamber by
respectively long and short micro-channels. Details of the microfluidic device design and
fabrication have been previously described (Kilinc et al, 2020).

The homemade devices were placed individually in Petri dishes for easy handling and
UV sterilized for 30 min before coating for cell adhesion. The primary surface coating
consisted of poly-L-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich) at 20 µg/mL in borate buffer (0.31% boric acid,
0.475% sodium tetraborate, pH 8.5). All coated devices were incubated overnight at 37°C,
5% CO2. After a wash with DPBS, devices were then coated with 20 µg/mL laminin in DPBS
and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO2. The following day, devices were carefully
washed once with DPBS before cell plating.

In total, 30,000 hiNPCs resuspended in NPM containing 10 µM of Y-27632 ROCK
inhibitor were seeded per device, half at the entrance of the presynaptic somatic chamber
and half at the entrance of the postsynaptic somatic chamber. Microfluidic devices were
microscopically checked at the phase contrast to ensure the cells were correctly flowing into
chambers. After a minimum of 5 minutes to allow the cells to attach, devices were filled
with NPM (containing 10 µM of Y-27632 ROCK Inhibitor). Water was added to the Petri

dishes to prevent media evaporation, and these were then incubated at 37°C in a humidified

5% CO2 incubator. For induced neuron culture from hiNPCs transduced for Ascl1,

doxycycline (2 µg/mL) was added on the first day of half medium change to induce TetO

gene expression. The following day, puromycin (1 µg/mL) was added to start cell selection.

Two days after the puromycin selection, a total of 5,000 HAs (ScienCell Research

Laboratories, CA, USA) were added per device. After 24 hours, Ara-C (2 µM) was added to

stop their proliferation. Half of the medium was changed twice a week with complete

BrainPhys medium + 2 µg/mL doxycycline for 14 days. After that, half medium change was

performed only with BrainPhys medium.

Five microfluidic devices were employed for each experimental condition (*BIN1* KO vs

WT both for spontaneous neuronal differentiation and Ascl1 induction) and two

independent cultures were performed. To assess the time-course effect, neuron cultures

were stopped at 4 and 6 weeks.

Viral Transductions

Lentiviral constructs were produced by the Vect'UB platform within the TBM Core unit

at University of Bordeaux, Bordeaux, France (CNRS UMS 3427, INSERM US 005). The

lentiviral constructs used were TTA (Vect'UB; ID # 571) and TetO-Ascl1-Puro (Addgene, #

97329). Lentiviral infections were done in NPCs at P3 or P4. The viral constructs were

transduced at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 2.5. In brief, NPCs were plated at a

confluency of 1x106 cells per well of a 6-well plate. After 4 hours of plating the cells,

appropriate volumes of each lentiviral construct were mixed in complete Neural Progenitor

medium and 50 µl of the viral medium mix was then added to each well. We transduced the

TTA construct at first in the hiNPCs. Following one passage, the TTA-transduced cells were

transduced with the construct for ASCL1. Cells having both viral constructs were then

further expanded for 1 or 2 passages before being used for differentiation into hiNs.

The iGluSnFR construct was an adeno-associated viral vector (BS11-COG-AAV8)

sourced from Vigene Biosciences, MD, USA. The viral construct was transduced at a MOI of

5,000 at around 10 days of differentiation for the ASCL1-hiNs. Differentiation was allowed to

continue for a duration of 4-6 weeks prior to MEA electrophysiology or imaging.

Immunocytochemistry and Immunohistochemistry

Bidimensional (2D) cultures: All cells were fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde

(Electron Microscopy Sciences, Catalog # 15712) for 10 minutes in the imaging plates.

Following, fixation, cells were washed thrice with PBS 0.1 M. Blocking solution (5% normal

donkey serum + 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS 0.1 M) was added to fixed cells at room

temperature for 1 hour under shaking conditions. After the blocking step, primary

antibodies were added to cells in the blocking solution and incubated overnight at 4°C. The

following day, cells were washed with PBS 0.1 M thrice for 10 mins. Each. Alexa Fluor®--

conjugated secondary antibodies in blocking solution were then incubated with the cells for

2 hours at room temperature under shaking conditions ensuring protection from light.

Subsequently, 3 washes with 0.1 M PBS were done for 10 min each at room temperature

under shaking conditions with protection from light. Hoechst 33258 solution was added

during the second PBS wash. Cells were mounted with Aqua-Poly/Mount (Polysciences, Inc.)

and imaged directly in the cell imaging plates. All images were acquired using an LSM 880

Confocal Scanning Microscope housed at the Imaging Platform of the Pasteur Institute, Lille.

Duolink® Proximity Ligation Assays (PLA) was used to detect endogenous Protein-Protein

Interactions. The following pairs of antibodies were used: anti-BIN1 (rabbit, 182562, abcam)

and anti-Cav1.2 (mouse, 84814, abcam); or anti-BIN1 and anti-Cav1.3 (mouse, 85491,

mouse). Other antibodies used for immunocytochemistry were: MAP2 (188006 and

188004, Synaptic Systems), Beta III Tubulin (MAB1637, Sigma-Aldrich), GFAP (AB5804,

Millipore; and 173006, Synaptic Systems). All Alexa Fluor®-tagged secondary antibodies

were sourced from Jacskon ImmunoResearch Europe Ltd.

Microfluidic Devices: Cultured induced neurons were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in

PBS for 15 min at room temperature, washed three times with PBS, and permeabilized with

0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min at room temperature. Cells were blocked in PBS

containing 5% normal donkey serum for 1 h at room temperature before overnight

incubation at 4°C with the following primary antibodies: MAP2 (188006, Synaptic Systems);

HOMER1 (160004, Synaptic Systems), Synaptophysin (101011, Synaptic Systems), and GFAP

(AB5804, Millipore). Cells were washed twice with PBS and incubated with the following

secondary antibodies for 2h at room temperature: DyLight™ 405 Donkey Anti-Chicken (703-

475-155, Jackson ImmunoResearch), Alexa Fluor 594 Donkey Anti-Guinea Pig (706-585-148,

Jackson ImmunoResearch), Alexa Fluor 488 Donkey Anti-Mouse (715-545-151, Jackson

ImmunoResearch) and Alexa Fluor 647 Donkey Anti-Rabbit (711-605-152, Jackson

ImmunoResearch). Cells were rinsed three times with PBS and microfluidic devices were
mounted with 90% glycerol.

Samples were imaged with a LSM 880 confocal microscope with a 63X 1.4 NA
objective. Images were acquired at zoom 2 in z-stacks of 0.5 µm interval. Typically, 6 images
were acquired per device from the synapse chamber near the postsynaptic chamber such
the image contains multiple dendrites. Images were deconvoluted using the Huygens
software (Scientific Volume Imaging, Netherlands).

Cerebral Organoids: Cerebral organoids were fixed in 4% PFA (w/v) for 30 min at 4°C
followed by three washes with PBS 0.1 M. Cerebral organoids were then placed in sucrose
solution (30% w/v) overnight before being embedded in O.C.T (Tissue-Tek). Embedded
tissue was sectioned at 20 µm using a Cryostar NX70 Cryostat (Thermo Scientific) and
mounted slides were stored at −80°C until immunostaining was performed. For
immunostaining, tissue sections were brought to room temperature and then rehydrated
with 3 washes with 0.1 M PBS, each for 5 mins. Slides were then washed once with PBS with
0.2% Triton X-100 for 15 mins. Tissue was blocked using 10% of donkey serum in PBS 0.1 M
for 1 h at room temperature. After blocking, primary antibodies were added to 0.2 % Triton
X-100 and 10% of donkey serum in PBS 0.1 M at appropriate dilutions and incubated
overnight at 4°C. The next day, slides were washed with PBS 0.1 M 3 times for 5 min each
with gentle shaking. Subsequently, slides were incubated with Alexa Fluor®-conjugated
secondary antibodies in 0.2 % Triton X-100 and 10% of donkey serum in PBS 0.1 M for 2 h at
room temperature in the dark. After secondary antibody incubation, slides were washed 3
times with PBS for 5 min with gentle shanking. Nuclei were visualized by incubating the
tissue for 5 min with Hoechst 33258 stain in PBS 0.1 M. Sections were mounted using
aqueous mounting medium (Polysciences). Images were acquired using an LSM 880
Confocal Scanning Microscope in concert with the ZEISS ZEN imaging software housed at the
Imaging Platform of the Pasteur Institute, Lille. Image acquisition was done at 40X for the
various cellular markers in Fig. 1. The antibodies used were MAP2 (188006, Synaptic
Systems) and GFAP (AB5804, Sigma-Aldrich).

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Quantification of Synaptic Connectivity

Synaptic connectivity was quantified as previously described (Kilinc et al, 2020). Briefly,
images were analyzed with Imaris software (Bitplane, Zürich, Switzerland) by reconstructing

Synaptophysin I and HOMER1 puncta in 3D. The volume and position information of all
puncta were processed using a custom Matlab (MathWorks, Natick, MA) program. This
program assigns each postsynaptic spot to the nearest presynaptic spot (within a distance
threshold of 1 μm) and calculates the number of such assignments for all presynaptic
puncta.
1065
Immunoblotting
Samples from the 2D cultures or brain organoids were collected in RIPA buffer
containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Complete mini, Roche Applied Science) and
sonicated several times at 60%-70% for 10 seconds prior to use for the immunoblotting
analyses. Protein quantification was performed using the BCA protein assay (ThermoFisher
Scientific). 10 μg of protein from extracts were separated in NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Gel
1.0mm (NP0321BOX, Thermo Scientific) or 3-8% Tri-Acetate gel (EA03755BOX, Thermo
Scientific) and transferred on to nitrocellulose membranes 0.2μm (#1704158, Bio-Rad).
Next, membranes were incubated in milk (5% in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20
(TBST)) or SuperBlock (37536, ThermoFisher Scientific) to block non-specific binding sites for
1 hour at room temperature, followed by several washes with TBST 0.1% or TNT 1x as
washing buffers. Immunoblottings were carried out with primary antibodies overnight at
4°C under shaking condition. The membranes were washed three times in the washing
buffer, followed by incubation with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 2 hours at
room temperature under shaking condition. The membranes were washed three times in
washing buffer, and the immune reactivity was revealed using the ECL chemiluminescence
system (SuperSignal, ThermoScientific) and imaged using the Amersham Imager 600 (GE Life
Sciences). Optical densities of bands were quantified using the Gel Analyzer plugin in Fiji–
ImageJ. The primary antibodies used for the immunoblots were as follows: BIN1
(ab182562,Abcam), APP C-terminal (A8717, Sigma-Aldrich), Tau (A002401-2, Agilent)
Phospho-Tau(Clone: AT8) (MN1020,ThermoFisher Scientific), CaV1.3 (CACNA1D) (ACC-005,
Alomone), CaV2.1 (CACNA1A) (ACC-001, Alomone), CaV2.2 (CACNA1B) (ACC-002, Alomone),
CaV2.3 (CACNA1E) (ACC-006, Alomone), CaV1.2 (CACNA1C) (AGP-001 and ACC-003,
Alomone), blocking peptide for Anti-CaV1.2 (CACNA1C) (BLP-CC003, Alomone) and β-ACTIN
(A1978, Sigma-Aldrich). Secondary antibodies used for the immunoblots were Mouse-HRP

(115-035-003, Jackson ImmunoResearch), Rabbit-HRP (111-035-003, Jackson
ImmunoResearch), and Guinea pig-HRP (106-035-003, Jackson ImmunoResearch).

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1094   *Activity-dependent endosytosis assay*
1095   ASCL1-hiNs (n=9 cultures from each genotype) were subjected to 30 min of
1096 depolarization with 65 mM KCl or a mock treatment. Cells were then collected and pulled
1097 for endosomal fraction purification using the Minute™ Endosome Isolation and Cell
1098 Fractionation Kit (Invent Biotechnologies). Western blot was performed as described above.

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AlphaLISA measurements
Cell culture media samples for AlphaLISA measurements were collected at the endof
the 3rd and 4th weeks of differentiation of the ASCL1-hiNs. Alpha-LISA kits specific for
human Aβ1–X (AL288C, PerkinElmer) and Aβ1–42 (AL276C, PerkinElmer) were used to
measure the amount of Aβ1–X and Aβ1–42 respectively in culture media. The human Aβ
analyte standard was diluted in the BrainPhys medium. For the assay, 2 μL of cell culture
medium or standard solution was added to an Optiplate-384 microplate (PerkinElmer). 2 μL
of 10X mixture including acceptor beads and biotinylated antibody was then added to the
wells with culture media or standard solution. Following incubation at room temperature
for an hour, 16 μL of 1.25X donor beads was added to respective wells and incubated at
room temperature for 1 hour. Luminescence was measured using an EnVision-Alpha Reader
(PerkinElmer) at 680-nm excitation and 615-nm emission wavelengths.

1112

Calcium and iGluSnFR Imaging
Calcium imaging was performed in 2D cultures after 4 weeks (Ascl1-induced). Prior to
imaging, the cells were incubated with Oregon Green™ 488 BAPTA-1 (OGB-1) acetoxymethyl
(AM) (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 1 h. A 2.5 mM stock solution of the calcium-indicator dye
was prepared in Pluronic™ F-127 (20% solution in DMSO) (ThermoFisher Scientific). 1 μL of
the dye solution was added to 400 μL of fresh BrainPhys medium in each well of a 24-well
cell imaging plate. Existing BrainPhys media from the wells of the plate was removed and
kept aside while the calcium-indicator dye was incubated in fresh BrainPhys medium. After
1 h of incubation, the medium which was kept aside was replaced to each well. The 2D

cultures were then ready to be imaged using a Spinning Disk Microscope (Nikon) housed at

the Institut Pasteur de Lille, Lille, France using the MetaMorph imaging software.

For imaging the calcium activity, 1000 images were taken using a 20× long-distance

objective, with 10 ms exposure time and 200 ms intervals. For each well, 5 random fields

were chosen, and the cellular activity was recorded.

Cells transduced with iGluSnFR were directly imaged after 4 or 6 weeks of

differentiation and 500 images were taken with the same imaging parameters. Up to 8 fields

per well were filmed, each field containing at least one fluorescent transduced cell along

with its processes.

1131

Analyses of Calcium Transients

All live recordings of neuronal calcium transients were first converted into .avi format

after background subtraction using the FIJI software. Following the conversion, the videos

were subsequently opened using the free software for data analyses of calcium imaging,

CALciumIMagingAnalyzer (CALIMA) made available online by Fer Radstake (Eindhoven

University of Technology, The Netherlands). Each video recording of a field of cells was first

downscaled to 2X in terms of size with a 10X zoom and was checked for the frame average

mode. Moreover, in this first detection stage, pre-set filter parameters were adjusted and

applied to enable the detection of the maximum number of fluorescent cells in each field. In

the analysis tab, detection of the average activity was checked and for pre-processing, a

median of 3 was applied. All cells within the pre-set filter parameters are detected as

regions of interest (ROIs) in the detection stage. Cell activity from all detected ROIs is then

recorded. However, in the subsequent analysis stage, only cells showing spiking frequencies

with a standard deviation of at least 2 or more were taken into consideration. Data in the

form of detection spikes and the correlation (peak) are extracted and exported as .csv files.

1147

Electrophysiological recordings in 2D cultures and cerebral organoids

ASCL1-hiNs were cultured in microfluidic devices bound to multi-electrode arrays

(256MEA100/30iR-ITO, Multi-Channel Systems, Germany). Extracellular action potentials

were recorded in 5 different cultures for both genotypes at 2, 3, 4 and 6 weeks of

differentiation using the MEA2100-256-System (Multi-Channel Systems). Before recordings,

MEAs were let stabilize for 5 min on the headstage to reduce artifacts due to medium

movement. Signals were recorded for 1 min, at 40 kHz sampling rate, using Multi Channel

Experimenter 2.16.0 software (Multi-Channel Systems). Electrical activity in cerebral

organoids was recorded using 256-6wellMEA200/30iR-ITO (Multi-Channel Systems,

Germany). Briefly, 5-6-month-old cerebral organoids were mounted onto MEAs and kept for

2 h in complete Brainphys medium. Then, MEAs were placed on the headstage and let

stabilize for 5 min before recordings. Signals were recorded for 5 min, at 10 kHz sampling

rate using Multi-Channel Experimenter 2.16.0. For rescue experiments using a calcium

channel blocker, ASCL1-hiNs were cultured on MEA 96-well plates (CytoView MEA 96, Axion

Biosystems, USA). Extracellular action potentials were recorded in 3 independent cultures

for either genotype in the presence of 50nM nifedipine (Tocris Bioscience) or vehicle using

the MaestroPro (Axion Biosystems, Inc, USA). Before recordings, MEAs were let stabilize for

5 min on the MaestroPro at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Signals were recorded for 3 min, at 12.5 kHz

sampling rate, using AxIS Navigator software (Axion Biosystems).

Spikes were detected using a fixed amplitude threshold of 5.5 and 4.5 standard

deviations (for the 2D and 3D cultures, respectively) of the high-pass filtered (>300 Hz)

signal for positive- and negative-going signals. The detection included a dead time of 3 ms to

account for the refractory period of action potentials. Quantification of the number of

detected spikes (MUAs) and spike bursts (defined as at least 5 spikes within 50 ms) was

performed using Multi-Channel Analyzer 2.16.0 software (Multi-Channel Systems).

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Spike sorting and temporal structure of spontaneous activity

Channels containing detected waveforms were manually processed offline for spike

waveform separation and classification using Offline Sorter v3 (Plexon, USA). Briefly, we

applied principal component analysis (PCA) to cluster spike waveforms of similar

morphologies. Using this approach, we identified from 2 to 10 well-isolated units per

channel, and therefore, we considered this single-unit activity (SUA). For each SUA, we

computed the average firing rate, the signal-to-noise ratio, the peak-to-trough amplitude

and duration, the average power (square amplitude of the average waveform), the mode of

the interspike interval distribution, and their firing patterns. It has been demonstrated that

dissociated neuronal cultures can develop complex discharge structures [47]. Here, we

considered burst activity if the SUA presents periods of high-frequency discharges

interspersed by regular or no discharges at all. Operationally, a burst must have at least 3

spikes within 100 ms and 200 ms intervals, for the interval between the first and the second,

and the second and the third discharge, respectively. After the third spike, the maximal

interval to consider a discharge part of the burst was 200 ms. Thus, we computed the SUA

that presented bursts, the number of bursts (i.e., the burst frequency), the average burst

duration, the number of spikes within each burst, the average burst frequency, and the

inter-burst interval. To evaluate the temporal structures of spike trains, we computed the

array-wide spike detection rate (ASDR), which is the number of spikes detected per unit of

time, summed over all electrodes in the array. This method is commonly used in the

literature to demonstrate synchronous activity (aka, bursts) in MUA data (Wagenaar, 2006).

1195

snRNA-seq Library Preparation

Nuclei isolation and Hash-tagging with oligonucleotides steps were realized on ice with

pre-cold buffers and centrifugations at 4°C. 6.5-month-old BIN1 WT, HET, and KO organoids

were processed as previously (Lambert et al., 2022). 4-week-old cultured ASCL1-induced

BIN1 WT and KO 2D cultures were washed in the imaging plate wells with 500 μL of

Deionized Phosphate Buffer Saline 1X (DPBS, GIBCO™, Fisher Scientific 11590476). Cells

were resuspended with wide bore tips in 500 μL Lysis Buffer (Tris-HCL 10mM, NaCl 10mM,

MgCl2 3mM, Tween-20 0,1%, Nonidet P40 Substitute 0,1%, Digitonin 0,01%, BSA 1%,

Invitrogen™ RNAseout™ recombinant ribonuclease inhibitor 0,04 U/μL). Multiple

mechanical resuspensions in this buffer were performed for a total lysis time of 15 mins.,

500 μL of washing buffer was added (Tris-HCL 10mM, NaCl 10 mM, MgCl2 3 mM, Tween-20

0.1%, BSA 1%, Invitrogen™ RNAseout™ recombinant ribonuclease inhibitor 0,04 U/μL) and

the lysis suspension was centrifuged 8 mins. at 500 g (used for all following centrifugation

steps). Nuclei pellets were washed tree times with one filtration step by MACS pre-

separation filter 20μm (Miltenyi Biotec). Nuclei pellets were resuspended in 100 μL of

staining buffer (DPBS BSA 2%, Tween-20 0.01%), 10 μL of Fc blocking reagent

HumanTruStainFc™ (422302, Biolegend) and incubated 5 min at 4°C. 1μl of antibody was

added (Total-Seq™-A0453 anti-Vertebrate Nuclear Hashtag 3 MAb414 for the WT and Total-

Seq™-A0454 anti-Vertebrate Nuclear Hashtag 4 MAb414 for the KO, 97286 and 97287

respectively, Biolegend) and incubated 15 mins. at 4°C. Nuclei pellets were washed three

times in staining buffer with one filtration step by MACS pre-separation filter 20 μm

(Miltenyi Biotec) to a final resuspension in 300 μL of staining buffer for Malassez cell

counting with Trypan blue counterstaining (Trypan Blue solution, 11538886,

Fisherscientific). Isolated nuclei were loaded on a Chromium 10X genomics controller

following the manufacturer protocol using the chromium single-cell v3 chemistry and single

indexing and the adapted protocol by Biolegend for the HTO library preparation. The

resulting libraries were pooled at equimolar proportions with a 9 for 1 ratio for Gene

expression library and HTO library respectively. Finally, the pool was sequenced using 100pb

paired-end reads on NOVAseq 6000 system following the manufacturer recommendations

(Illumina).

1226

snRNA-seq Dataset Preprocessing

Unique Molecular Index (UMI) Count Matrices for gene expression and for Hash Tag

Oligonucleotide (HTO) libraries were generated using the CellRanger count (Feature

Barcode) pipeline. Reads were aligned on the GRCh38-3.0.0 transcriptome reference (10x

Genomics). Filtering for low quality cells according to the number of RNA, genes detected,

and percentage of mitochondrial RNA was performed. For HTO sample, the HTO matrix was

normalized using centered log-ratio (CLR) transformation and cells were assigned back to

their sample of origin using HTODemux function of the Seurat R Package (v4) [48]. Then,

normalizations of the gene expression matrix for cellular sequencing depth, mitochondrial

percentage and cell cycle phases using the variance stabilizing transformation (vst) based

Seurat:SCTransform function were performed.

1238

snRNA-seq datasets integration and annotation

To integrate the datasets from independent experiments, the harmony R package

(https://github.com/immunogenomics/harmony) was used. In order to integrate the

datasets, the SCTransform normalized matrices was merged and PCA was performed using

Seurat::RunPCA default parameter. The 50 principal components (dimensions) of the PCA

were corrected for batch effect using harmony::RunHarmony function. Then, the 30 first

batch corrected dimensions were used as input for graph-based cell clustering and

visualization tool. Seurat::FindNeighbors using default parameters and Seurat::FindClusters

function using the Louvain algorithm were used to cluster cells according to their batch

corrected transcriptomes similarities. To visualize the cells similarities in a 2-dimension

space, the Seurat::RunUMAP function using default parameter was used. Cell clusters were

then annotated based on cell type specific gene expression markers.

1251

Differential gene expression and GO enrichment analyses

For snRNA-seq experiment reproduce 2 times or less (*i.e.* organoid and nifedipine

experiments), gene expression within each main cell type was compared between

conditions of interest using Wilcoxon test on the SCTransform normalized gene expression

matrix. For snRNA-seq experiment reproduce more than 2 times (*BIN1* KO vs WT hiNs

comparison), Pseudobulk differential expression analysis was performed using the package

DESeq2 (CRAN). For each main cell type, the cell level gene expression matrix was first

aggregate at the sample level using Matrix:: aggregate.Matrix function. Genes detected in

more than 100 cells or in 10% of the cells was test for differential expression using DESeq

function, including in the model the experiment batch as covariate.

GO enrichment analysis on the differentially expressed genes was performed using

the gost function of the gprofiler2 R package (CRAN), using default parameter, or, if

specified using fast gene-set enrichement analysis (FGSEA, [49]) package (Bioconductor).

1265

Activity-related genes (ARGs) signature enrichment analysis at single cell resolution

To study enrichment for activity-related genes (ARGs) signature across cerebral

organoid cells, the CellID R package (https://github.com/RausellLab/CelliD) was used. ARGs

obtained from Tyssowski et al. (2018) and Hravtin et al. (2018) (supplementary Table 7),

were translated to the corresponding human gene name with the help of the biomaRt

package using the respective Ensembl references. Then, the CellID::RunMCA was used to

extract cell-specific gene signature and hypergeometric test was performed to test

enrichment for ARGs in these cell signatures. To test the differential proportion of ARGs

enriched cells in BIN1 deleted organoid compared to WT organoid, chi-squared test was

performed.

1276

Comparative analysis with specific DEGs in AD brains

To compare the transcriptomic change observed in BIN1 deleted cerebral organoid

with those observed in AD brain we used the dataset available for download at Synapse.org

under the Synapse ID syn21788402 [35]. The raw gene expression matrix was normalized

using Seurat::SCTransform and differential expression analysis was performed within each

neuronal cell type using Wilcoxon test as used for our organoid dataset. AD related DEGs,

thus, obtained were compared with our BIN1 related organoid DEGs in every cell type. To

this end, the enrichment for AD-related DEGs in BIN1-related DEGs was tested using

hypergeometric test. The background for this test was defined as all genes detected in both

datasets. The p-value of this test was used as metrics to compare the significance of the

gene overlap between neuronal cell types.

1288

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 8.0.0 (GraphPad

Software, San Diego, California USA, www.graphpad.com) and R 4.2.0 (R Core Team, 2022,

https://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/base/old/4.2.0/). Bar plots show mean ± SD and

individual values. Box plots show 1-99 percentile. Statistical tests and p values are indicated

in figure legends.

1295

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure 10

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

A

High voltage activated calcium channels

Cav1 (L-type)

CACNA1C (Cav1.2)   CACNA1D (Cav1.3)

Cav2 (P/Q-type, N-type and R-type)

CACNA1A (Cav2.1)   CACNA1B (Cav2.2)   CACNA1E (Cav2.3)

****

WT
KO

Expression Level

B

GFAP   MAP2   PLA (BIN1:Cav1.3)   Merged

WT

C

BIN1 WT ASCL1-hiNs   BIN1 KO ASCL1-hiNs

280 kDa
260 kDa
240 kDa   CaV1.3

40 kDa   β-ACTIN

260 kDa

160 kDa   CaV2.1

40 kDa   β-ACTIN

260 kDa   CaV2.2

160 kDa

40 kDa   β-ACTIN

260 kDa   CaV2.3

160 kDa

40 kDa   β-ACTIN

D

p = 0.17   Cav1.3/β-ACTIN   WT   KO

p = 0.44   Cav2.1/β-ACTIN   WT   KO

p = 0.51   Cav2.2/β-ACTIN   WT   KO

p = 0.72   Cav2.2/β-ACTIN   WT   KO

p = 0.67   Cav2.3/β-ACTIN   WT   KO

p = 0.34   Cav2.3/β-ACTIN   WT   KO

Figure S6