1

Transmembrane protein 184B (TMEM184B) promotes expression of synaptic gene

networks in the mouse hippocampus

Authors: Erik G. Larsen[1#], Elizabeth B. Wright[1#], Hannah R. Hart[1], Martha R.C. Bhattacharya[1*]

Affiliations: [1]Department of Neuroscience, 1040 E 4th Street, Tucson, Arizona, 85721, USA.

#These authors contributed equally.

*Correspondence: marthab1@arizona.edu

Running head: TMEM184B in hippocampal synaptic gene expression

Keywords: TMEM184B, hippocampus, RNAseq, synapse, Alzheimer's Disease

Abstract

In Alzheimer's Disease (AD) and other dementias, hippocampal synaptic dysfunction

and loss contribute to the progression of memory impairment. Recent analysis of human AD

transcriptomes has provided a list of gene candidates that may serve as drivers of disease. One

such candidate is the membrane protein TMEM184B. To evaluate whether TMEM184B

contributes to neurological impairment, we asked whether loss of TMEM184B in mice causes

gene expression or behavior alterations, focusing on the hippocampus. Because one major risk

factor for AD is age, we compared young adult (5-month-old) and aged (15-month-old) wild type

and *Tmem184b*-mutant mice to assess the dual contributions of age and genotype. TMEM184B

loss altered expression of pre- and post-synaptic transcripts by 5 months and continued through

15 months, specifically affecting genes involved in synapse assembly and neural development.

Wnt-activated enhancer elements were enriched among differentially expressed genes,

suggesting an intersection with this pathway. Few differences existed between young adult and

aged mutants, suggesting that transcriptional effects of TMEM184B loss are relatively constant.

To understand how TMEM184B disruption may impact behaviors, we evaluated memory using

the novel object recognition test and anxiety using the elevated plus maze. Young adult

Tmem184b-mutant mice show normal object discrimination, suggesting a lack of memory

impairment at this age. However, mutant mice showed decreased anxiety, a phenotype seen in

neurodevelopmental disorders. Taken together, our data suggest that TMEM184B is required

for proper synaptic gene expression and function but may not be causal for AD and related

dementias.

Introduction

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) is a devastating neurodegenerative disease for which we have

a paucity of treatment options. In 2022, it is estimated that 10.7% of adults over 65 have

Alzheimer's-induced dementia [1]. The burden on patients, their families and health systems is

expected to grow significantly in the next 20 years; this trend is already apparent [2].

Alzheimer's Disease causes the accumulation of amyloid beta plaques and

neurofibrillary tangles in diverse regions of the brain [3]. Many clinical trials have focused on the

depletion of amyloid as a key therapeutic strategy. However, trials in which amyloid plaques are

successfully diminished have not produced a reduction or delay in cognitive impairment in trial

participants [4]. This highlights the need for the identification of new targets that may contribute

to early cognitive impairment and that may offer hope at alternative strategies for stopping the

progression of Alzheimer's Disease.

Large-scale human genome-wide association and RNAseq analysis to identify network

drivers of disease has yielded many plausible candidates that could contribute to AD [5–7]. With

these candidates in hand, the task for the AD field now shifts to identifying which candidates

cause bona fide alterations in relevant gene expression pathways or in behaviors associated

with AD. Through a recent RNAseq analyses, the transmembrane protein TMEM184B was

predicted as a candidate protein that could promote AD progression [8]. TMEM184B is a 7-pass

transmembrane protein expressed broadly in the nervous system and is thought to play a role in

neuronal excitability, synaptic structure, and expression of key developmental and adult

pathways involved in neuronal differentiation [9, 10]. Using analysis of the ROSMAP and MAYO

clinic human cohorts, *TMEM184B* was predicted to drive AD-associated gene expression

patterns in the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex and temporal cortex, respectively [8]. However,

knockdown of *TMEM184B* in human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived neurons did not

directly affect Aβ levels [5], suggesting that this gene may play a more indirect role.

In this study we sought to directly test the hypothesis that TMEM184B regulates gene

networks that could contribute to AD, using a mutant mouse model in which the *Tmem184b*

gene is disrupted [11]. We compared how TMEM184B-regulated gene networks are influenced

by aging, focusing on the hippocampus as a key location involved in memory. We identified

impairments in pathways controlling synapse assembly and function in TMEM184B-deficient

hippocampus. We also evaluated memory and anxiety behaviors in these mice. Our results

identify a clear effect of TMEM184B on the expression of synaptic gene networks at both young

adult and older ages. We also uncovered an unexpected effect of TMEM184B loss on anxiety

behavior. However, at young adulthood TMEM184B mutant mice do not have impaired memory.

Our work places TMEM184B into a gene regulatory network that could impact synaptic

connectivity and influence cognitive function but whose loss likely does not precipitate memory

impairment.

Materials and Methods

Animal Assurances

All animal experiments are approved by and were performed in accordance with the

University of Arizona Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) Protocol 17-216.

Hippocampal RNA Isolation

Male and female mice were humanely euthanized with carbon dioxide, and hippocampi

were removed within 10 minutes of euthanasia and immediately frozen for subsequent RNA

isolation. Total RNA was extracted using Trizol (Invitrogen) using the manufacturer's protocol.

Following initial quality check via Nanodrop analysis, total RNA samples were frozen and

shipped to Novogene (Sacramento, CA) for sequencing. Quality control checks were done by

Novogene to ensure that sequenced samples had high RNA quality. Sequencing was performed

using paired end 150bp reads, 30 million reads/sample, on the Illumina platform. Raw reads

data were provided by Novogene.

Data Processing and Statistical Analysis

Alignment to the mouse genome (mm10.0) was done using Salmon and run on the High

Performance Computing cluster at the University of Arizona. Differential gene expression

analysis was done using DESeq2 on Galaxy servers (http://usegalaxy.org). PCA plots were

generated by Galaxy's DESeq2 default settings, or done in R (https://cran.r-project.org/) using

the stats R package.

For GO analysis, Panther pathway analysis, and KEGG pathway analysis, ribosomal

genes were manually removed from the lists prior to submission. GO analysis

(http://geneontology.org/) was performed with a background list of genes consisting of the full

list of mapped genes identified by pseudoalignment via the Salmon algorithm from the datasets

used for each comparison. KEGG analysis was performed using Enrichr online tools

(https://maayanlab.cloud/Enrichr/). Transcription factor binding analysis involved two Enrichr

tools: ChEA (2016) and Transcription Factor Perturbations. For both analyses, adjusted P-

values were exported and plotted in Graphpad Prism.

Data Visualization

Fold change values were imported into Cytoscape and mapped onto networks (Biogrid

Protein-Protein interaction Network as derived from https://downloads.thebiogrid.org/ or

GOCAM Gene Ontology network, as derived from https://github.com/geneontology/gocam-sif-

pyexport). To create subnetworks for visualization, we first identified hub proteins that were

themselves differentially expressed and also contained multiple differentially expressed genes in

their nearest neighbors. Colorization of levels of fold change used a continuous scale from red

to blue, with grey representing genes not differentially expressed in the comparison groups. For

biological processes, the default color palette was changed such that darker blues are more

significant adjusted P-values, while lighter greens to white are less significant.

Graphs were made in either R (ggplot2 package) or in Graphpad Prism. Venn diagrams

were created using online tools available at the University of Gent, Belgium

(https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/).

Novel Object Recognition

Our protocol for novel object recognition was adapted from Leger et al. [12]. Eight to ten

mice of each genotype were used for this study; these mice were 5-7 months old and were

approximately sex balanced (50/50 or 60/40). Mice were acclimated to the testing room and to

the experimenter for two sessions (two days). On day 3, mice were individually placed in an

empty square chamber and allowed to explore for 5 minutes. Videos were recorded from above

the box in ambient light and with the experimenter outside the room. On day 4

(training/association), mice were returned to the chamber to explore two identical objects for ten

minutes. On day 5 (24 hours after the day 4 training trial), mice were returned to the chamber

which contained one familiar object from the day before, along with one novel object. Ten

minutes of object exposure was captured via video. Videos were analyzed offline in Ethovision.

To quantify mouse behavior, we used a discrimination index, which is calculated as (total time at

novel object – total time at familiar object) / (total object exploration time). Positive values

indicate recognition of a novel object.

Elevated Plus Maze

Mice were placed at the distal end of a closed arm and allowed to walk on an elevated

X-shaped platform (50cm from the ground, 35 cm arm length, made of gray non-reflective non-

odorous poly-methyl methacrylate (PMMA)) for five minutes. Two of the arms of the platform are

enclosed by walls, while two are open. The number of times a mouse enters the open or closed

arms is recorded. The ratio of open vs. closed entries, and time spent in open versus closed

arms, are calculated as an index of anxiety. Benchpads are used under the open arms to

cushion any unexpected falls.

Results

TMEM184B promotes expression of synapse assembly genes in the mouse

hippocampus.

145   TMEM184B expression is required for maintenance of synaptic structure at

neuromuscular junctions in both mouse and fly. We wondered if this role would extend to the

hippocampus, a center for learning and memory processing. TMEM184B is expressed in

neuronal layers of the hippocampus, suggesting it may contribute here as well. We compared

gene expression in the hippocampus in wild type and *Tmem184b* gene-trap mutant mice (which

have less than 5% mRNA of *Tmem184b* remaining [10, 11]) at 5 months of age (Fig 1 and

Supplementary File 1). Wild type mice showed high clustering in both principal components (Fig

1a), while mutant mice separated well from wild type mice in principal component 1 (PC1). In

total, 1153 genes were differentially expressed in *Tmem184b*-mutant hippocampi (Fig 1b-c).

When considering those genes with significant hippocampus expression, a group of

developmentally important transcripts emerged including Shank1 (involved in post-synaptic

density scaffolding), Neurexin 1 (involved in synaptic assembly and adhesion), and

Somatostatin (a marker of subtypes of interneurons).

158   To evaluate the biological processes likely affected by TMEM184B in the hippocampus,

we used gene ontology analysis to pinpoint processes with significant enrichment of

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in our dataset (Fig 1d). This showed a large predicted

effect on synapse assembly and neural development. Other processes that may be affected in

Tmem184b-mutant mice include memory/cognition, synapse function, behavior, and neuronal

cell death. We performed pathway analysis on these data by querying the KEGG database (Fig

1e). This analysis identified many key pathways affecting both glutamatergic (excitatory) and

GABAergic (inhibitory) synapses. Furthermore, it suggested that the pathways dysregulated in

Tmem184b-mutants were enriched for those contributing to neurodegenerative diseases

including Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's Disease. Taken together, our analysis of

transcriptomic changes in *Tmem184b*-mutant hippocampus predicts significant dysregulation of

synapses that may be linked to neurological disease.

Synaptic Protein-Protein Interaction Networks and Biological Processes rely on

TMEM184B for proper hippocampal expression.

We sought to take a closer look at the relatedness of genes that were differentially

expressed in the pathways described above, specifically synapse assembly and neural

development. Using Cytoscape, we visualized our gene expression changes on the predicted

mouse protein-protein interaction network annotated by Biogrid (Fig 2-B). We noticed a

significant enrichment of altered transcripts of proteins that are predicted to interact with two key

neurodevelopmental proteins: Neurogenin3 and with Shank1. However, contrary to our

expectations, *Tmem184b*-mutant mice show upregulation of proteins in these networks (shown

in circles with pink and red shading). Neurogenin 3 is a transcription factor that promotes

dendritogenesis in cultured hippocampal neurons [13]. Shank1, along with its family members,

are critical scaffolds for postsynaptic density proteins and glutamate receptors, and they are

implicated in autism spectrum disorders [14, 15]. The upregulation of these proteins could be a

direct effect of TMEM184B or a compensatory effect following other synaptic disruptions; our

data does not distinguish between these possibilities. Nevertheless, the correct levels of these

factors are crucial for maintenance of proper circuit assembly and function; both up- and down-

regulation of both proteins is deleterious [13, 16].

In addition to mapping our data onto known protein-protein interactions, we also mapped

our data onto gene ontology networks and assessed which neuronal or synapse-related

processes were predicted to be altered by TMEM184B expression. The most differentially

expressed GO Biological Processes associated with synapses were in synaptic transmission

and plasticity. This prediction is consistent with data showing that TMEM184B mutation causes

hyperexcitability at glutamatergic synapses in *Drosophila* [9]. Within the search term "neuron"

these processes were enriched for neurogenesis and projection (axon/dendrite) development.

Overall, our analysis suggests that TMEM184B maintains appropriate expression of

interconnected networks of synaptic and neurodevelopmental genes in the hippocampus.

Analysis of Transcription Factors Upstream of Hippocampal Differentially Expressed

Genes implicates Wnt signaling alterations.

To understand why loss of TMEM184B causes gene expression changes in the

hippocampus at 5 months, we performed an *in silico* analysis to identify enriched transcription

factor target genes in our DEGs using two platforms. In the first (ChEA 2016), we identified four

transcription factors with enriched targets (DMRT1, RARB, ZFP281, and TCF7) (Fig 3A-B).

DMRT1 is not expressed in the brain and so is unlikely to have an effect. ZFP281 is a

transcriptional repressor that maintains the pluripotency of stem cell populations and is highly

expressed. RARB, or retinoic acid receptor beta, is a steroid hormone receptor responsive to

retinoic acid (RA) and plays roles in embryonic development. Disruptions to RARB lead to

neurodevelopmental delay and are associated with autism spectrum disorder [17]. TCF7 is a

canonical Wnt signaling pathway mediator [18]. In a separate analysis, we used the EnrichR

platform to examine the overlap between DEGs from our data set with mouse transcription

factor manipulations performed by others. We identified many transcription factors whose gene

expression alterations significantly resemble that of *Tmem184b*-mutant hippocampus.

Interestingly, multiple associations were identified with transcription factors known to promote

Wnt signaling (NEUROD1, TCF3, PLAGL2) [19][20, 21]. This is consistent with prior work

suggesting that Wnt pathway dysfunction could participate in TMEM184B-dependent

phenotypes [10]. Wnt/β-catenin signaling is critical for hippocampal neurogenesis [22, 23], so

this suggests that one effect of *Tmem184b* disruption may be loss of neurons. Other factors,

such as NFIA, are known contributors to stem cell maintenance and proliferation. Adult

neurogenesis in the hippocampus is required for long-term spatial memory in mice [24]. Taken

together, this analysis suggests a possible role for TMEM184B in the generation of hippocampal

neurons via promotion of Wnt pathway signaling.

Identification of Common and Unique Aging Signatures in *Tmem184b*-mutant

hippocampus

The biggest risk factor for the development of Alzheimer's Disease is advanced age. To

identify unique signatures of TMEM184B that may affect the aging brain, we compared genes

that were altered upon aging (15 months of age) in wild type mice with those in *Tmem184b*-

mutant mice. The *Tmem184b* transcript itself was not significantly altered across wild type

aging, although it was slightly reduced in older mice ($\log_2FC$ = -0.13; Adjusted P value = 0.074).

After filtering out ribosomal transcripts, a total of 2171 genes were significantly altered in

15-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant mice compared to age-matched wild types (Supplementary

File 2). Of these, 222 transcripts were altered at both ages (Fig 4A-B and Supplementary File

3). We identified the most enriched processes in this group using gene ontology (Fig 4C-D).

This analysis confirmed the strong effects of TMEM184B loss on synaptic processes, including

postsynaptic density organization, glutamate receptor and neuroligin binding activity, and

synaptic plasticity. Interestingly, both young and aged TMEM184B mutant mice have a small but

significant upregulation of ApoE transcripts ($\log_2FC$ of 0.23 and 0.30, respectively). This

comparison confirms that, throughout aging, TMEM184B continues to influence synaptic gene

expression.

If we compare 5-month-old and 15-month-old mutant mice, very few genes are

significantly different (104 total) (Fig 4E and Supplementary File 4). In this group, no biological

pathways, molecular functions, or cellular components reached statistical significance (all had

adjusted p values > 0.05). This indicates that the changes that have occurred in TMEM184B

mutant mice primarily occur by 5 months, and gene expression is relatively constant beyond

that point. We used the Molecular Signatures database (MSigDB) to query whether alterations

in this small group of genes were similar to other published transcriptomic datasets. This

analysis revealed that the most similar datasets are mouse models of neurological disease,

including two Huntington's Disease models (R6/2 and Q175) and spinal cerebellar ataxia

models caused by disruption of Ataxin-1 (Fig 4F). This suggests that the few genes that are

altered by aging in TMEM184B mutants may affect similar pathways to those affected in HD and

Ataxia.

Somatostatin, and other neuronal genes, are similarly regulated in both central and

peripheral neurons

To evaluate common signatures of TMEM184B-dependent gene expression across

disparate types of neurons, we compared the differentially expressed genes (adjusted p < 0.05)

between our 5 month hippocampus data set and one we have previously reported from 6 month

adult dorsal root ganglia [10]. Among differentially expressed genes, we identified 12 genes

(including *Tmem184b* itself) that were similarly regulated (Fig 5 and Supplementary File 5). In

many cases, the fold change in the hippocampus was somewhat less than that in the DRG,

which could reflect a greater percentage of non-neuronal cells in the hippocampus that may

dilute the overall fold change. Nevertheless, we noticed that Somatostatin, a neuropeptide used

as a marker of GABAergic inhibitory interneurons in the hippocampus (but which marks

excitatory, pruriceptive neurons in the DRG), was downregulated in both data sets, suggesting a

common means of regulation in these two tissues. One common upregulated gene, Tsukushi

(*Tsku*), is a negative regulator of the Wnt pathway [25]. Taken together with our earlier

analyses, this again implicates a loss of Wnt signaling in TMEM184B-associated phenotypes.

Finally, Bc1, a long non-coding RNA that is upregulated in TMEM184B-deficient neurons, has

been shown to promote translation of amyloid precursor protein (APP) and cause spatial

learning and memory defects [26].

TMEM184B loss does not affect spatial memory but alters anxiety behaviors in middle

aged mice

Finally, we sought to evaluate how these gene expression changes in the hippocampus

affect behaviors driven by this brain region, including anxiety and object-oriented memory. In

prior work, we established that six-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant mice show no deficiencies on

the rotarod assay, but show difficulty in an inverted screen test, indicating that some

sensorimotor impairment is present [10, 11]. Prior to performing memory assays, we first

evaluated mobility of mice in an open field, using the same arena we planned to use for spatial

memory testing. We did not observe any significant differences in mobility (total distance

traveled) (Fig 6A), indicating that we could use this paradigm and arena for novel object

recognition, a classical object-oriented memory paradigm. However, we did not see any

difference between wild type and *Tmem184b*-mutant mice in their ability to recognize novel

objects (both showed a positive discrimination index, indicating more time at the novel object)

(Fig 6B). This indicates that at six months of age, TMEM184B loss does not alter memory.

Next, we evaluated anxiety using the elevated plus maze. Anxious mice spend more

time in closed arms (with walls) than in open arms (without walls). Surprisingly, we identified a

decreased anxiety overall in *Tmem184b*-mutant mice when compared to wild types.

Tmem184b-mutant mice spent considerably more time in the open arms of the maze (Fig 6C).

This indicates that TMEM184B promotes appropriate anxiety levels in the elevated plus maze

assay.

Discussion

TMEM184B was predicted in human transcriptome analyses to be associated with

deleterious gene expression that could drive the progression of Alzheimer's dementia [8]. Our

experiments sought to evaluate this hypothesis using RNAseq analysis across aging in young

and aged *Tmem184b*-mutant and wild type mice. Our results show that TMEM184B has

significant effects on synaptic gene expression in the hippocampus in both young and old mice.

Alteration of post-synaptic density gene transcripts occurred in all of our pathway

analyses. Proteins in this group, such as SHANK1, SHANK3, and PSD95/DLG4 contribute to

the scaffolding of neurotransmitter receptors. Interestingly, transcripts of all three of these genes

are over-expressed in *Tmem184b*-mutant mice. This upregulation of mRNA could reflect a

compensation for presynaptic dysfunction, an inappropriate dendritic overgrowth, or a failure to

prune exuberant synapses. In fly models of mutation of the TMEM184B ortholog, *Tmep*, extra

active zones and synaptic release sites (boutons) are observed at neuromuscular junctions [9],

suggesting that additional synapses may be a common effect of TMEM184B disruption. Further

detailed analysis of hippocampal synaptic morphology and physiology will be necessary to

parse apart these possibilities.

Somatostatin (*Sst*), a common downregulated gene across both central and peripheral

TMEM184B-deficient data sets, plays many distinct roles in the nervous system. In dorsal root

ganglia, it is a neurotransmitter for a subset of itch-activated sensory neurons [27]. TMEM184B

loss in DRG neurons causes disruption of sensation of interleukin-31, a key cytokine involved in

atopic dermatitis (eczema) that is detected exclusively by SST+ neurons [27, 28]. In contrast, in

the dentate gyrus, somatostatin reduction occurs in genetic models of temporal lobe epilepsy

[29]. Reintroduction of SST in this model reverses the epileptic phenotypes, arguing for a causal

role in suppression of seizures. *Drosophila* models of TMEM184B deficiencies show ectopic

firing and elevated synaptic calcium, indicating a role in restraining excitability [9]. Thus,

phenotypes of SST and TMEM184B overlap substantially; our determination that TMEM184B

regulates *Sst* expression in multiple cell types could explain this concordance. It would be of

future interest to determine whether restoration of SST in TMEM184B mutant mice could restore

normal gene expression and/or behaviors.

Another common theme among our data is the connection between TMEM184B and

Wnt pathway regulation. In our prior work, we showed that TMEM184B expression positively

influences the expression of many Wnt signaling components, as well as their downstream

targets, in developing somatosensory neurons [10]. In this work, we also find dysregulation of

Wnt components in the hippocampus, including the loss of Wnt pathway targets as well as

upregulation of Wnt pathway inhibitors such as Tsukushi. Wnt signaling deficiency contributes to

AD phenotypes in mouse models [30], and it has also been identified as a key pathway altered

in human AD samples [31]. While our data does not directly link TMEM184B to the development

of AD pathology, it suggests that TMEM184B dysfunction disrupts synaptic gene regulatory

networks and also influences expression of genes with more direct links to AD.

The mechanism of action of the TMEM184B protein is yet unknown. Clues to its role

include localization to endosomes and synaptic vesicles, accumulation of multilamellar

structures in mutant presynaptic terminals, and additional autophagosomes and lysosomes in

skeletal muscle in its absence. Because Wnt signaling occurs within endosomes and

contributes to dendritic growth, we hypothesize that a failure of Wnt signaling (perhaps due to a

blockade in the endolysosomal pathway) may account for some of the phenotypes we observe.

While we did not complete an exhaustive behavioral analysis, we found that TMEM184B

disruption causes reduced anxiety in the elevated plus maze paradigm. Reduced anxiety is

seen in some models of neuroatypical development including autism spectrum disorders and in

mice predisposed to depression [32, 33]. We speculate that TMEM184B loss may disrupt

anxiety circuits to cause this phenotype.

We did not observe memory impairment when TMEM184B was disrupted in 6-month-old

mice. It is still possible that older mice may show impairments. However, perhaps more likely,

we suspect that TMEM184B disruption itself is not causative for memory loss. Instead, we

hypothesize that compromising TMEM184B function, in the presence of other susceptibility loci,

may increase the likelihood of developing dementia. Given its strong effects on synaptic gene

expression networks as well as the disruptions to synaptic morphology and function seen in

other studies, it will be of future interest to directly evaluate synaptic function via electrical

recording in the hippocampus and to evaluate its role in the context of mouse models of AD.

Data Availability

The data sets generated and analyzed in the current study have been deposited to NCBI

GEO at the following accession: GSE204831. All custom-written code in R for RNAseq analysis

is available at GitHub (https://github.com/eriklarsen4/ggplot-scripts.git and

https://github.com/martharcb/). Dorsal root ganglion data to which we compared our

hippocampal RNAseq data can be found on NCBI GEO (GSE154316).

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Ms. Rachel Dinh for help with initial analysis, Ms. Tiffany

Cho for genotyping assistance and behavior consultation, Mr. Matt Schmitt for behavior

consultation and Ethovision training, Dr. Tally M. Largent-Milnes for behavior consultation, and

Dr. Rajesh Khanna for use of the elevated plus maze. We would like to thank Dr. Rui Chang for

consultations early in the development of this project.

Funding

This work was funded by the NIH (NS105680) Alzheimer's Disease and Related Dementia

supplement to M.R.C.B.

Conflict of Interest

The authors do not report any conflicts of interest pertaining to the content of this manuscript.

References:

374 1. (2022) 2022 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. Alzheimer's Dement 18:700–789.

375  https://doi.org/10.1002/ALZ.12638

376 2. Hebert LE, Beckett LA, Scherr PA, Evans DA (2001) Annual incidence of Alzheimer

377  disease in the United States projected to the years 2000 through 2050. Alzheimer Dis

378  Assoc Disord 15:169–173. https://doi.org/10.1097/00002093-200110000-00002

379 3. Price JL, Davis PB, Morris JC, White DL (1991) The distribution of tangles, plaques and

380  related immunohistochemical markers in healthy aging and Alzheimer's disease.

381  Neurobiol Aging 12:295–312. https://doi.org/10.1016/0197-4580(91)90006-6

382 4. Knopman DS, Jones DT, Greicius MD (2021) Failure to demonstrate efficacy of

383  aducanumab: An analysis of the EMERGE and ENGAGE trials as reported by Biogen,

384  December 2019. Alzheimers Dement 17:696–701. https://doi.org/10.1002/ALZ.12213

385 5. Mostafavi S, Gaiteri C, Sullivan SE, et al (2018) A molecular network of the aging human

386  brain provides insights into the pathology and cognitive decline of Alzheimer's disease.

387  Nat Neurosci 21:811–819. https://doi.org/10.1038/S41593-018-0154-9

388 6. Wang M, Li A, Sekiya M, et al (2021) Transformative Network Modeling of Multi-omics

389  Data Reveals Detailed Circuits, Key Regulators, and Potential Therapeutics for

390  Alzheimer's Disease. Neuron 109:257-272.e14.

391  https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEURON.2020.11.002

392 7. Harold D, Abraham R, Hollingworth P, et al (2009) Genome-wide association study

393  identifies variants at CLU and PICALM associated with Alzheimer's disease. Nat Genet

394  41:1088–1093. https://doi.org/10.1038/NG.440

395 8. AMP-AD AMP in AD Agora AD Knowledge Portal. https://agora.adknowledgeportal.org/.

396  Accessed 17 Apr 2022

397 9. Cho TS, Beigaitė E, Klein NE, et al (2022) The Putative Drosophila TMEM184B Ortholog

398  Tmep Ensures Proper Locomotion by Restraining Ectopic Firing at the Neuromuscular

399  Junction. Mol Neurobiol. https://doi.org/10.1007/S12035-022-02760-3

10.   Larsen EG, Cho TS, McBride ML, et al TMEM184B is necessary for IL-31-induced itch.

PAIN (in Press. https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.01.25.919902

11.   Bhattacharya MRC, Geisler S, Pittman SK, et al (2016) TMEM184b Promotes Axon

Degeneration and Neuromuscular Junction Maintenance. J Neurosci 36:4681–9.

https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2893-15.2016

12.   Leger M, Quiedeville A, Bouet V, et al (2013) Object recognition test in mice. Nat Protoc

8:2531–2537. https://doi.org/10.1038/NPROT.2013.155

13.   Salama-Cohen P, Arévalo MÁ, Grantyn R, Rodríguez-Tébar A (2006) Notch and

NGF/p75NTR control dendrite morphology and the balance of excitatory/inhibitory

synaptic input to hippocampal neurones through Neurogenin 3. J Neurochem 97:1269–

1278. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1471-4159.2006.03783.X

14.   Sheng M, Kim E (2000) The Shank family of scaffold proteins. J Cell Sci 113 (Pt

11):1851–1856. https://doi.org/10.1242/JCS.113.11.1851

15.   Vyas Y, Cheyne JE, Lee K, et al (2021) Shankopathies in the Developing Brain in Autism

Spectrum Disorders. Front Neurosci 15:775431.

https://doi.org/10.3389/fnins.2021.775431

16.   Harris KP, Akbergenova Y, Cho RW, et al (2016) Shank Modulates Postsynaptic Wnt

Signaling to Regulate Synaptic Development. J Neurosci 36:5820–5832.

https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4279-15.2016

17.   Doan RN, Lim ET, De Rubeis S, et al (2019) Recessive gene disruptions in autism

spectrum disorder. Nat Genet 2019 517 51:1092–1098. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-

019-0433-8

18.   Hoppler SP, Kavanagh CL (2007) Wnt signalling: variety at the core. J Cell Sci 120:385–

393. https://doi.org/10.1242/JCS.03363

19.   Arredondo SB, Valenzuela-Bezanilla D, Mardones MD, Varela-Nallar L (2020) Role of

Wnt Signaling in Adult Hippocampal Neurogenesis in Health and Disease. Front Cell Dev

Biol 8:860. https://doi.org/10.3389/FCELL.2020.00860/BIBTEX

20.   Wang YP, Guo PT, Zhu Z, et al (2017) Pleomorphic adenoma gene like-2 induces

epithelial-mesenchymal transition via Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway in human

colorectal adenocarcinoma. Oncol Rep 37:1961–1970.

https://doi.org/10.3892/OR.2017.5485

21.   Li N, Li D, Du Y, et al (2019) Overexpressed PLAGL2 transcriptionally activates Wnt6 and

promotes cancer development in colorectal cancer. Oncol Rep 41:875–884.

https://doi.org/10.3892/OR.2018.6914

22.   Lie DC, Colamarino SA, Song HJ, et al (2005) Wnt signalling regulates adult hippocampal

neurogenesis. Nature 437:1370–1375. https://doi.org/10.1038/NATURE04108

23.   Kalani MYS, Cheshier SH, Cord BJ, et al (2008) Wnt-mediated self-renewal of neural

stem/progenitor cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 105:16970–16975.

https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.0808616105

24.   Deng W, Saxe MD, Gallina IS, Gage FH (2009) Adult-Born Hippocampal Dentate

Granule Cells Undergoing Maturation Modulate Learning and Memory in the Brain. J

Neurosci 29:13532–13542. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3362-09.2009

25.   Ohta K, Ito A, Kuriyama S, et al (2011) Tsukushi functions as a Wnt signaling inhibitor by

competing with Wnt2b for binding to transmembrane protein Frizzled4. Proc Natl Acad

Sci U S A 108:14962–14967. https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1100513108

26.   Zhang T, Pang P, Fang Z, et al (2018) Expression of BC1 Impairs Spatial Learning and

Memory in Alzheimer's Disease Via APP Translation. Mol Neurobiol 55:6007–6020.

https://doi.org/10.1007/S12035-017-0820-Z

27.   Huang J, Polgár E, Solinski HJ, et al (2018) Circuit dissection of the role of somatostatin

in itch and pain. Nat Neurosci 21:707–716. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-018-0119-z

28.   Grimstad Ø, Sawanobori Y, Vestergaard C, et al (2009) Anti-interleukin-31-antibodies

ameliorate scratching behaviour in NC/Nga mice: a model of atopic dermatitis. Exp

Dermatol 18:35–43. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0625.2008.00766.x

29.   Kim S, Kim H, Park D, et al (2020) Loss of IQSEC3 Disrupts GABAergic Synapse

Maintenance and Decreases Somatostatin Expression in the Hippocampus. Cell Rep

30:1995-2005.e5.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CELREP.2020.01.053/ATTACHMENT/D265A14F-832D-4B2B-

AD52-23B0CEC64DD4/MMC1.PDF

30.   Marzo A, Galli S, Lopes D, et al (2016) Reversal of Synapse Degeneration by Restoring

Wnt Signaling in the Adult Hippocampus. Curr Biol 26:2551–2561.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CUB.2016.07.024

31.   Bai B, Wang X, Li Y, et al (2020) Deep Multilayer Brain Proteomics Identifies Molecular

Networks in Alzheimer's Disease Progression. Neuron 105:975-991.e7.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEURON.2019.12.015

32.   McFarlane HG, Kusek GK, Yang M, et al (2008) Autism-like behavioral phenotypes in

BTBR T+tf/J mice. Genes Brain Behav 7:152–163. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1601-

183X.2007.00330.X

33.   Fernandez SP, Gaspar P (2012) Investigating anxiety and depressive-like phenotypes in

genetic mouse models of serotonin depletion. Neuropharmacology 62:144–154.

https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROPHARM.2011.08.049

 Figure Legends:

 Figure 1. TMEM184B-dependent gene expression alterations in the mouse hippocampus.

 A, Principal component analysis (PCA) of wild type and mutant samples taken at 5 months of

 age shows strong clustering of wild types (black circles), and loose clustering of mutant samples

 (green circles). **B**, volcano plot showing both up- and down-regulation of genes based on

 differential expression analysis. Purple indicates adjusted P-values of $p < 0.05$. **C**, MA-plot of

 base mean expression value versus Log_2(Fold Change) from DeSeq2. Red, Adjusted $p < 0.05$;

 blue, adujsted $p < 0.01$. Selected genes of interest are labeled. **D**, GO Biological Process Fold

 Enrichment (FE) scores of categories above 2.0 FE. Numbers indicate average FE;

 parentheses denote number of processes in that category. **E**, KEGG Pathways analysis (done

 using Enrichr). Top 10 pathways are shown, ranked by p-value.

 Figure 2. TMEM184B loss disrupts key synaptic gene networks. A-B, mouse protein

 interaction networks as defined by BioGRID. Node color represents log_2 of fold change (darker

 red indicates higher over-expression in *Tmem184b*-mutant; blue shades indicate

 downregulation in *Tmem184b*-mutant). Circles indicate adjusted P-values where $p < 0.05$;

 rectangles indicate $p > 0.05$. Edge lengths have no significance. **C-D**, GO Biological Process

 network maps (from GoCAM) showing terms (gene sets) having significant alteration in

 Tmem184b-mutant mice versus controls. Darker blue indicates stronger fold change, while

 larger nodes indicate stronger significance (all nodes shown have Adjusted $p < 0.05$). Edge

 lengths have no significance. GO Biological Process terms disrupted in *Tmem184b*-mutant

 hippocampi identified with the search term "synapse" (in C) or "neuron" (in D).

 Figure 3. Analysis of Transcription Factors Upstream of Hippocampal DEGs identifies

 Wnt pathway alterations. A, Chromatin Enrichment Analysis (ChEA) for mouse transcription

factors (TFs) with binding in promoters of differentially expressed genes from *Tmem184b*-

mutant hippocampi at 5 months of age. Shown are TFs for which enrichment scores were

statistically significant (Adjusted P < 0.05). **B**, Base mean expression in 5-month-old

hippocampus of each transcription factor in A, graphed against its adjusted P-value. **C**, top 10

mouse data sets from transcription-factor-manipulated genetic backgrounds that show

significant overlap with TMEM184B differentially expressed genes. Adjusted P values calculated

by Enrichr.

Figure 4. Gene Expression Changes in 15-month *Tmem184b*-mutant vs wild type mice. A,

MA-plot of gene expression changes between 15-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant and wild type

hippocampus. Red dots show genes with adjusted p < 0.05, while blue dots show adjusted p <

0.01. **B**, Venn diagram showing overlap between 5-month and 15-month genotype-induced

changes. **C-D**, evaluation of enrichment among the 222 overlapping genes using gene ontology

for Biological Processes (C) and Cellular Components (D). Shown is Combined Score reported

by Enrichr. This score takes into account both P-value and Odds Ratio. Asterisks indicate level

of statistical significance (Adjusted P-value, **** <0.0001, *** < 0.001, ** < 0.01). **E**, Four-way

comparison of differentially expressed genes (no ribosomal gene filtering). **F**, gene set

categories identified by Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) among genes different

between 5- and 15-month *Tmem184b*-mutant mice. Abbreviations: HD, Huntingon's Disease

model mice; Oligo, oligodendrocytes; Ataxin, Ataxin-1 mutant mice. The full list of molecular

signatures is shown in Supplementary Table 5.

Figure 5. TMEM184B similarly regulates somatostatin and other transcripts in both

central and peripheral neurons. Data for DRG is available at NCBI GEO (NCBI GEO

GSM4668859) Log$_2$FC of genes identified in each data set (hippocampus, black bars; adult

DRG, grey bars). A full list of genes differentially regulated in both data sets can be found in

Supplementary Table 6.

Figure 6. Memory and Anxiety Behaviors in *Tmem184b*-mutant mice. All graphs show mice

of both sexes and are approximately sex balanced. **A**, Open field habituation over five minutes

for mice 5-7 months of age. Total distance traveled in centimeters. WT, wild type, Mut,

Tmem184b-gene trap mutant mice. **B**, Memory test at 24 hours using the novel object

recognition task. Discrimination index is calculated as described in materials and methods. Each

dot shows an individual mouse. N = 10 wild type and 8 mutant mice. **C**, measurement of anxiety

using the elevated plus maze. For all graphs, statistical evaluation used unpaired t-test with

Welch's correction. Numbers in bars (in A and C) indicate sample size. Error bars show

standard error of the mean (SEM) for all panels.

Supplementary Material

Supplementary File F1. DESeq2 output of differential gene expression analysis between the

hippocampi of 5-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant mice and age-matched wild types.

Supplementary File F2. DESeq2 output of differential gene expression analysis between the

hippocampi of 15-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant mice and age-matched wild types.

Supplementary File F3. Differentially expressed genes in *Tmem184b*-mutant mice common to

both the 5-month-old and 15-month-old comparison groups. Ribosomal transcripts have been

omitted.

Supplementary File F4. DESeq2 output of differential gene expression analysis between the

hippocampi of 15-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant mice and 5-month-old *Tmem184b*-mutant mice.

Supplementary File F5. Analysis of 104 differentially expressed genes across aging in

Tmem184b-mutant mice using the Molecular Signatures Database (MsigDB).

Supplementary File F6. All genes identified as differentially expressed in both adult dorsal root

ganglia and hippocampus of *Tmem184b*-mutant mice compared to wild type mice.

A
Neurogenin 3
Subnetwork

B
Shank1 Subnetwork

C
GO Biological Process
"Synapse" Subnetwork

D
GO Biological Process
"Neuron" Subnetwork

A

15 month Changes by Genotype

Log2FC vs Base Mean

B

5 month / 15 month

883 | 222 | 1949

C

GO Biological Process

- PSD organization
- Preventing H2O2 induced death
- Excitatory synapse assembly
- Striated muscle diff'n
- Promotion ATP biosynthesis
- Forskolin resp
- Inhibit A-beta formation
- Synaptic plasticity
- cAMP biosynthesis

D

GO Cellular Component

- PSD membrane ****
- PSD specialization ***
- SR membrane
- Apical dendrite
- Clathrin coat
- Glutamatergic synapse **
- SV membrane
- Clathrin adaptor
- nBAF complex

E

Genotype diff / Aging diff

5 mo | 15 mo | Mut | WT

630 | 711 | 23 | 1931

182 | 15 | 4

2 | 2

43 | 9 | 1237

6 | 74

F

- HD 50%
- Oligo 20%
- Ataxin 18%
- Other 12%

A

B

C