1

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

networks in the mouse hippocampus

Authors: Elizabeth B. Wright[1#], Erik G. Larsen[1#], Cecilia M. Coloma-Roessle[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 some neurodevelopmental disorders. Taken together, our data suggest that TMEM184B is required for proper synaptic gene expression and anxiety-related behavior and is more likely to be linked to neurodevelopmental disorders than to dementia.

Introduction

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) is a devastating neurodegenerative disease for which we have a paucity of treatment options. In 2022, it was 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 for alternative strategies to slow 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 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, specifically on proteins known to promote proper synaptic development

and function. While young adult *Tmem184b*-mutant mice do not have impaired memory, we

uncovered an unexpected effect of TMEM184B loss on anxiety behavior. Our work places

TMEM184B into a gene regulatory network that could impact synaptic connectivity and, rather

than cause dementias, may instead be linked to neurodevelopmental disease.

Materials and Methods

Mouse Strains

Mice used in this study have a gene-trap insertion originally created by the Texas A&M

Institute for Genomic Medicine allele Tmem184bGt[(IST10294F4)] on the C57BL/6 background. Mice

containing this insertion have been previously characterized to have very low (<5% of wild type)

TMEM184B mRNA expression by both qPCR and RNAseq [10, 11]. C57BL/6 mice bred in

house (littermates when possible) were used as controls.

Hippocampal RNA Isolation

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. RNAseq data includes the following mice by age and sex: 4 5-6 month wild type

(1F/3M), 3 5-6 month mutant (1F/2M), 3 15 month WT (3F, excluded 1 M sample due to poor

quality), 3 15-month mutant (1F/2M).

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 [12]. PCA plots were generated by

Galaxy's DESeq2 default settings [13], or done in R using the stats R package.

For Gene Ontology (GO) analysis, Panther pathway analysis, and KEGG pathway

analysis[14–16], ribosomal genes were manually removed from the lists prior to submission. GO

analysis [17] 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 in R using the pathfindR package. Transcription

factor binding analysis involved two Enrichr tools: ChEA (2016) and Transcription Factor

Perturbations [18]. For both analyses, adjusted P-values (computed using the Benjamini-

Hochberg method to correct for multiple comparisons) were exported and plotted in Graphpad

Prism. Molecular signatures were analyzed using the MSigDB Hallmark 2020 collection or the

Huntington's Disease Molecular signatures database (HDSigDB) [19].

Data Visualization

Fold change values from the differential gene expression analysis (DeSeq2) were

calculated as described [13], imported into Cytoscape [20] and mapped onto networks (Biogrid

Protein-Protein interaction Network [21] or GOCAM Gene Ontology network [22]. 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 [23].

Novel Object Recognition

Our protocol for novel object recognition was adapted from Leger et al. [24]. 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. Total distance traveled in the open field and

time spent within 2 cm of each object during each trial 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). Total object

exploration time was calculated as the sum of time spent at both the novel and familiar objects

during the trial. Positive values indicate recognition of a novel object.

Elevated Plus Maze

Eight 6-month-old wild-type (5 female, 3 male) and nine *Tmem184b*-mutant (5 female, 4

male) mice were used for the behavior assay. 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.

β-galactosidase Staining and Immunohistochemistry
158

Adult male Thy1-YFP positive mice [25] were euthanized with CO_2. The hippocampus

was removed and briefly fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 5 minutes, followed by submersion in

X-gal staining solution (0.1 M phosphate buffer pH 7.5, 5 mM potassium ferricyanide, 5 mM

potassium ferrocyanide, 20 mM Tris-HCL, 0.02% NP-40, and 0.01% sodium deoxycholate) for

1.5 to 2 hours. Tissues were rinsed and post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/1X PBS overnight.

Fixed tissue was washed with PBS, submerged in 30% sucrose/1X PBS, and embedded in

O.C.T. media. Sections of 40 µm thickness were cut on a cryostat and incubated with primary

antibodies to Rabbit anti-GFAP (Proteintech 16825-1-AP, used at 1:200) and Rat anti-Cd11b

(ThermoFisher 12-0112-82, used at 1:200) overnight at 4℃. Secondaries used were Alexa Fluor

488 anti-rabbit (Invitrogen) and Cy3 anti-Rat (Jackson ImmunoResearch).

Hippocampus Immunostaining

Mice were perfused with 4% PFA/1X PBS, and whole brains were removed and fixed in 4% PFA overnight. The next day, hippocampi were dissected and rehydrated in 30% sucrose 1XPBS. Brain tissue was embedded in O.C.T. media for cryosectioning (40μm thickness) at -20°C. Tissue sections were blocked with 1% Tx-100, 4% NGS, 2% BSA, and 1X PBS overnight (4°C). Primary antibodies were Rabbit anti- SHANK1 (NovusBio Cat. #NB300-167, used at 1:150) and Mouse anti-PSD-95 (ThermoFisher Cat. #MA1-046, used at 1:200), incubated overnight (4°C). Samples were washed in 1X PBST (0.1% Tx-100 in 1XPBS). Secondaries were incubated for 1 hour and included Alexa Fluor 488 anti-rabbit (Invitrogen) and Cy3 anti-mouse (Jackson ImmunoResearch). Tissue samples were mounted with DAPI antifade vectashield (VectorLabs Cat. #H-1200).

Image Acquisition and Analysis

Images were acquired on a Zeiss AXIO Observer.Z1 using a 40x oil objective. Images were taken as z-stacks (12) and analyzed as an orthogonal projection. Raw CZI files were imported into ImageJ (Fiji) and processed (background subtraction, white top hat filtering). Images were then binarized and segmented via watershed. We defined nuclei via DAPI and analyzed the surrounding perinuclear area by expanding the DAPI ROI by 3 μm in all directions. We binarized the PSD-95 and SHANK1 images and counted puncta within the expanded and nuclear ROIs using the Process > Find Maxima function. A macro for automating puncta counting across ROIs is available on GitHub (https://github.com/marthab1/image_analysis). To quantify puncta within the perinuclear region, the puncta within the nuclear ROI (inner) was subtracted from the puncta within the enlarged ROI (outer). We analyzed at least 60 neurons per mouse, averaged these to get counts per cell, and evaluated statistical significance using unpaired t-test with Welch's correction (Graphpad Prism).

Results

TMEM184B promotes expression of synapse assembly genes in the mouse

hippocampus.

TMEM184B expression is required for maintenance of synaptic structure at

neuromuscular junctions in both mouse and fly [11, 9]. We wondered if this role would extend to

the hippocampus, a center for learning and memory processing. TMEM184B is highly

expressed in neuronal layers of the hippocampus compared to other brain regions, suggesting it

may significantly contribute here [26]. 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 [11, 27]) at 5 months of age (Figure 1 and Additional File 2). Wild type

mice showed high clustering in both principal components (Figure 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 (Figure 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) [28, 29],

Neurexin 2 (involved in synaptic assembly and adhesion) [30], and Somatostatin (a marker of

subtypes of interneurons) [31].

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 in our dataset (Figure 1D and Additional File 3). 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 mouse

KEGG database (Figure 1E) [14–16]. This analysis identified many key cellular pathways such

as motor protein and proteasome function that may be disrupted by loss of TMEM184B.

Furthermore, it suggested that pathways dysregulated in *Tmem184b*-mutants are enriched for

those contributing to neurodegenerative diseases including Parkinson's disease, ALS,

Spinocerebellar ataxia, and Huntington's Disease. To investigate which cells might be driving

these changes, we queried the cell type expression of TMEM184B in the hippocampus.

TMEM184B is found primarily in neurons in the hippocampus, with little to no expression in

astrocytes or microglia (Supplemental Figure 1 in Additional File 1). Taken together, our

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

dysregulation of neuronal function 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 [20], we visualized our gene expression changes on the

predicted mouse protein-protein interaction network annotated by Biogrid (Figure 2A-B and

Supplemental Figure 2). We noticed a significant enrichment of altered transcripts of proteins

that are predicted to interact with two key neurodevelopmental proteins: Neuroligin 3 and

SHANK1. However, contrary to our expectations, *Tmem184b*-mutant mice show upregulation of

transcripts in these networks (shown in circles with pink and red shading). Neuroligin 3 is a cell

adhesion molecule that, along with Neurexins, mediate adhesion between pre- and post-

synaptic sites. Mutations in Neuroligins are associated with autism spectrum disorders (ASDs)

[30, 32]. SHANK1, along with its family members, are critical scaffolds for postsynaptic density

proteins and glutamate receptors, and they are similarly implicated in ASDs [28, 29]. The

upregulation of these transcripts could be a direct effect of TMEM184B or a compensatory effect

following other synaptic disruptions. To evaluate the formation of synapses, we used

immunohistochemistry to assess SHANK1 levels alongside those of PSD-95 in the

hippocampus. Surprisingly, we found that in areas surrounding neuronal cell bodies, the number

of PSD-95 and SHANK1 puncta showed a trend towards a decrease in *Tmem184b*-mutant mice

(p = 0.056 for SHANK1) (Supplemental Figure 3 in Additional File 1). These data are consistent

with a disruption of synaptic structure in the hippocampus and could suggest that synaptic gene

transcripts are upregulated to compensate for lost synapses. 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 [33, 34].

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

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

processes were predicted to be altered by *TMEM184B* expression (Figure 2C-D). The most

differentially expressed GO Biological Processes associated with synapses were in synaptic

transmission and plasticity. This prediction is consistent with existing 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) (Figure 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 [35]. 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 [36]. TCF7 is a

canonical Wnt signaling pathway mediator [37]. 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 (Figure

3C). Interestingly, multiple associations were identified with transcription factors known to

promote Wnt signaling (NEUROD1, TCF3, PLAGL2) [38–40]. This is consistent with prior work

suggesting that Wnt pathway dysfunction could participate in TMEM184B-dependent

phenotypes [27]. Wnt/β-catenin signaling is critical for hippocampal neurogenesis [41, 42], 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 [43]. 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 disruption that may affect the aging brain, we

performed additional RNA sequencing on the hippocampi of older *Tmem184b*-mutant or wild

type mice (15 months of age). We then identified genes differentially expressed across aging,

genotype, or both. The *TMEM184B* transcript itself was not significantly altered across wild type

aging, although it was slightly reduced in older mice ($\log_2$FC = -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 (Additional File 4).

Of these, 222 transcripts were altered at both ages (Figure 4A-B and Additional File 5). We

identified the most enriched processes in this group using gene ontology (Figure 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 the aging process, 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) (Figure 4E and Additional File 6). 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. Of the 104 genes found to be disrupted, many are

disrupted in other 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

(Figure 4F and Additional File 7). In a broader look at the molecular signatures of TMEM184B

disruption using the MSigDB Hallmark 2020 collection, we identified two gene sets with

statistically significant similarity to ours: TNF-alpha signaling (p = 0.02) and Adipogenesis (p =

0.02).

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 (Figure 5 and Additional File 8). 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 [44]. Taken together with our earlier analyses

[10], this again implicates a loss of Wnt signaling in TMEM184B-associated phenotypes.

TMEM184B loss does not affect object-oriented memory but alters anxiety behaviors in

middle aged mice

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

affect behaviors influenced 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 memory

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

(Figure 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) (Figure 6B). This

indicates that at six months of age, TMEM184B loss does not alter object-oriented memory in

this paradigm.

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 (Figure

6C). When data is separated by sex, females but not males were found to drive this difference

in anxiety behavior (Supplemental Figure 4 in Additional File 1). This indicates that TMEM184B

is required for appropriate anxiety levels in females 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 PSD-95/DLG4 contribute to

the scaffolding of neurotransmitter receptors [45, 28]. 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 immunohistochemical analysis, we observe trends

toward reduced numbers of postsynaptic puncta, which may support the compensation model.

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

to parse apart these possibilities.

Somatostatin, 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 [46]. 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 [46, 47]. In contrast, in

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

[48]. 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]. Here 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 [49], and it has also been identified as a key pathway altered

in human AD samples [50]. 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 [11]. 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 females 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 [51, 52]. Data from lesion studies, optogenetic

manipulations, and immediate early gene expression in the hippocampus support a separation

of memory and anxiety control centers in the hippocampus, with the ventral hippocampus

primarily responsive to anxiety-inducing stimuli [53, 54].

Genetic associations with anxiety have not been well elucidated. Human dataset

analysis has identified a group of 26 risk genes associated with anxiety using transcriptome-

wide association (TWAS) [55], but none of these were significantly altered in our dataset.

Therefore we suspect that it is an overall network change, rather than any individual gene, that

is contributing to synaptic alterations leading to our observation of decreased anxiety in

Tmem184b-mutant mice, especially in females. We hypothesize that disruptions to

neurogenesis (GO term 0050767, 2.14 fold enriched) and synaptic organization (GO term

0050808, 2.9 fold enriched) could contribute to these changes, especially given that

hippocampal adult neurogenesis is required for proper anxiety circuit function [56]. Here again,

Wnt signaling is known to play a role. During neurogenesis, canonical Wnt signaling (through β-

catenin) triggers mouse hippocampal neural stem cells to differentiate towards neuronal fates

and integrate into circuits [41, 57]. Thus it is plausible that in the absence of TMEM184B, Wnt

signaling pathways show reduced activation, leading to a decrease in adult neurogenesis, a

disruption of hippocampal function, and an altered anxiety response; these links must be

formally tested in future work. These changes may be accentuated in females compared to

males. Indeed, in humans, anxiety-related diagnoses are much more prevalent in females [58].

Our RNAseq experiments were not powered to determine a difference by sex. It will be of

interest in the future to explore how TMEM184B-controlled molecular pathways may have

sexual dimorphism.

We did not observe object-oriented recognition memory impairment when TMEM184B

was disrupted in 6-month-old mice. Future work should evaluate other types of memory in these

mice, specifically spatial memory (using the Morris water maze task) or associative learning

(using fear conditioning paradigms). It is still formally 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 significant 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.

Author Contributions

E.W., E.L., and H.H. analyzed RNAseq data. E.W. performed mouse behavioral tests. E.W. and

C.C-R. performed immunohistochemistry. All authors assembled the figures and wrote the

manuscript. M.R.C.B. funded the research.

Availability of Data and Materials

The data sets supporting the conclusions of this article are available in the NCBI GEO

repository [GSE204831; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=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/marthab1/image_analysis]. 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 Schmit for behavior consultation,

perfusion help 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.

Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate

All animal experiments were approved by the University of Arizona Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee (IACUC) Protocol 17-216. All methods were carried out in accordance with

relevant guidelines and regulations regarding the ethical treatment of animals. All methods are

reported in accordance with ARRIVE guidelines for the reporting of animal experiments.

Consent for Publication

Not applicable.

References:

1.   (2022) 2022 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. Alzheimer's and Dementia 18:700–789.
https://doi.org/10.1002/ALZ.12638

2.   Hebert LE, Beckett LA, Scherr PA, Evans DA (2001) Annual incidence of Alzheimer
disease in the United States projected to the years 2000 through 2050. Alzheimer disease
and associated disorders 15:169–173. https://doi.org/10.1097/00002093-200110000-
00002

3.   Price JL, Davis PB, Morris JC, White DL (1991) The distribution of tangles, plaques and
related immunohistochemical markers in healthy aging and Alzheimer's disease.
Neurobiology of aging 12:295–312. https://doi.org/10.1016/0197-4580(91)90006-6

4.   Knopman DS, Jones DT, Greicius MD (2021) Failure to demonstrate efficacy of
aducanumab: An analysis of the EMERGE and ENGAGE trials as reported by Biogen,
December 2019. Alzheimer's & dementia: the journal of the Alzheimer's Association
17:696–701. https://doi.org/10.1002/ALZ.12213

5.   Mostafavi S, Gaiteri C, Sullivan SE, et al (2018) A molecular network of the aging human
brain provides insights into the pathology and cognitive decline of Alzheimer's disease.
Nature neuroscience 21:811–819. https://doi.org/10.1038/S41593-018-0154-9

6.   Wang M, Li A, Sekiya M, et al (2021) Transformative Network Modeling of Multi-omics
Data Reveals Detailed Circuits, Key Regulators, and Potential Therapeutics for
Alzheimer's Disease. Neuron 109:257-272.e14.
https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEURON.2020.11.002

7.   Harold D, Abraham R, Hollingworth P, et al (2009) Genome-wide association study
identifies variants at CLU and PICALM associated with Alzheimer's disease. Nature
genetics 41:1088–1093. https://doi.org/10.1038/NG.440

8.   AMP-AD AMP in AD Agora AD Knowledge Portal. https://agora.adknowledgeportal.org/.
Accessed 17 Apr 2022

9.   Cho TS, Beigaitė E, Klein NE, et al (2022) The Putative Drosophila TMEM184B Ortholog
Tmep Ensures Proper Locomotion by Restraining Ectopic Firing at the Neuromuscular
Junction. Molecular neurobiology. https://doi.org/10.1007/S12035-022-02760-3

10.   Larsen EG, Cho TS, McBride ML, et al (2022) Transmembrane protein TMEM184B is
necessary for interleukin-31-induced itch. Pain 163:E642–E653.
https://doi.org/10.1097/J.PAIN.0000000000002452

11.   Bhattacharya MRC, Geisler S, Pittman SK, et al (2016) TMEM184b Promotes Axon
Degeneration and Neuromuscular Junction Maintenance. The Journal of Neuroscience
36:4681–9. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2893-15.2016

12.   Afgan E, Baker D, van den Beek M, et al (2016) The Galaxy platform for accessible,
reproducible and collaborative biomedical analyses: 2016 update. Nucleic Acids Res
44:W3–W10. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw343

13.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S (2014) Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion
516   for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biology 15:550. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-
517   014-0550-8

518   14.   Kanehisa M, Goto S (2000) KEGG: kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes. Nucleic
519   Acids Res 28:27–30. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/28.1.27

520   15.   Kanehisa M (2019) Toward understanding the origin and evolution of cellular organisms.
521   Protein Sci 28:1947–1951. https://doi.org/10.1002/pro.3715

522   16.   Kanehisa M, Furumichi M, Sato Y, et al (2023) KEGG for taxonomy-based analysis of
523   pathways and genomes. Nucleic Acids Res 51:D587–D592.
524   https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkac963

525   17.   Gene Ontology Resource. In: Gene Ontology Resource. http://geneontology.org/.
526   Accessed 27 Apr 2023

527   18.   Kuleshov MV, Jones MR, Rouillard AD, et al (2016) Enrichr: a comprehensive gene set
528   enrichment analysis web server 2016 update. Nucleic acids research 44:W90–W97.
529   https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw377

530   19.   May 22 HdA on, General 2018 in HD Molecular Signatures – HDSigDB – HDinHD.
531   https://www.hdinhd.org/2018/05/22/hdsigdb/. Accessed 26 Apr 2023

532   20.   Shannon P, Markiel A, Ozier O, et al (2003) Cytoscape: a software environment for
533   integrated models of biomolecular interaction networks. Genome Res 13:2498–2504.
534   https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.1239303

535   21.   BioGRID Download File Repository | BioGRID Downloads.
536   https://downloads.thebiogrid.org/. Accessed 26 Apr 2023

537   22.   (2023) GOCAM export to SIF

538   23.   Draw Venn Diagram. https://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/. Accessed 26 Apr
539   2023

540   24.   Leger M, Quiedeville A, Bouet V, et al (2013) Object recognition test in mice. Nature
541   protocols 8:2531–2537. https://doi.org/10.1038/NPROT.2013.155

542   25.   Feng G, Mellor RH, Bernstein M, et al (2000) Imaging Neuronal Subsets in Transgenic
543   Mice Expressing Multiple Spectral Variants of GFP. Neuron 28:41–51.
544   https://doi.org/10.1016/S0896-6273(00)00084-2

545   26.   Allen Mouse Brain Atlas. https://mouse.brain-map.org/experiment/show/68745534.
546   Accessed 1 Aug 2023

547   27.   Larsen EG, Cho TS, McBride ML, et al TMEM184B is necessary for IL-31-induced itch.
548   PAIN (in press). https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.01.25.919902

549   28.   Sheng M, Kim E (2000) The Shank family of scaffold proteins. Journal of cell science 113 (
550   Pt 11):1851–1856. https://doi.org/10.1242/JCS.113.11.1851

551   29.   Vyas Y, Cheyne JE, Lee K, et al (2021) Shankopathies in the Developing Brain in Autism
552   Spectrum Disorders. Frontiers in neuroscience 15:775431.
553   https://doi.org/10.3389/fnins.2021.775431

554   30.   Südhof TC (2008) Neuroligins and neurexins link synaptic function to cognitive disease.
555   Nature 455:903–911. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature07456

556   31.   Song Y-H, Yoon J, Lee S-H (2021) The role of neuropeptide somatostatin in the brain and
557   its application in treating neurological disorders. Exp Mol Med 53:328–338.
558   https://doi.org/10.1038/s12276-021-00580-4

559   32.   Quartier A, Courraud J, Thi Ha T, et al (2019) Novel mutations in NLGN3 causing autism
560   spectrum disorder and cognitive impairment. Hum Mutat 40:2021–2032.
561   https://doi.org/10.1002/humu.23836

562   33.   Harris KP, Akbergenova Y, Cho RW, et al (2016) Shank Modulates Postsynaptic Wnt
563   Signaling to Regulate Synaptic Development. The Journal of neuroscience : the official
564   journal of the Society for Neuroscience 36:5820–5832.
565   https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4279-15.2016

566   34.   Salama-Cohen P, Arévalo MÁ, Grantyn R, Rodríguez-Tébar A (2006) Notch and
567   NGF/p75NTR control dendrite morphology and the balance of excitatory/inhibitory synaptic
568   input to hippocampal neurones through Neurogenin 3. Journal of neurochemistry 97:1269–
569   1278. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1471-4159.2006.03783.X

570   35.   Pieraccioli M, Nicolai S, Pitolli C, et al (2018) ZNF281 inhibits neuronal differentiation and
571   is a prognostic marker for neuroblastoma. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 115:7356–7361.
572   https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1801435115

573   36.   Doan RN, Lim ET, De Rubeis S, et al (2019) Recessive gene disruptions in autism
574   spectrum disorder. Nature Genetics 2019 51:7 51:1092–1098.
575   https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-019-0433-8

576   37.   Hoppler SP, Kavanagh CL (2007) Wnt signalling: variety at the core. Journal of Cell
577   Science 120:385–393. https://doi.org/10.1242/JCS.03363

578   38.   Wang YP, Guo PT, Zhu Z, et al (2017) Pleomorphic adenoma gene like-2 induces
579   epithelial-mesenchymal transition via Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway in human colorectal
580   adenocarcinoma. Oncology reports 37:1961–1970. https://doi.org/10.3892/OR.2017.5485

581   39.   Li N, Li D, Du Y, et al (2019) Overexpressed PLAGL2 transcriptionally activates Wnt6 and
582   promotes cancer development in colorectal cancer. Oncology reports 41:875–884.
583   https://doi.org/10.3892/OR.2018.6914

584   40.   Arredondo SB, Valenzuela-Bezanilla D, Mardones MD, Varela-Nallar L (2020) Role of Wnt
585   Signaling in Adult Hippocampal Neurogenesis in Health and Disease. Frontiers in Cell and
586   Developmental Biology 8:860. https://doi.org/10.3389/FCELL.2020.00860/BIBTEX

587   41.   Lie DC, Colamarino SA, Song HJ, et al (2005) Wnt signalling regulates adult hippocampal
588   neurogenesis. Nature 437:1370–1375. https://doi.org/10.1038/NATURE04108

589   42.   Kalani MYS, Cheshier SH, Cord BJ, et al (2008) Wnt-mediated self-renewal of neural
590   stem/progenitor cells. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United
591   States of America 105:16970–16975. https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.0808616105

592   43.   Deng W, Saxe MD, Gallina IS, Gage FH (2009) Adult-Born Hippocampal Dentate Granule
593   Cells Undergoing Maturation Modulate Learning and Memory in the Brain. Journal of
594   Neuroscience 29:13532–13542. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3362-09.2009

595   44.   Ohta K, Ito A, Kuriyama S, et al (2011) Tsukushi functions as a Wnt signaling inhibitor by
596   competing with Wnt2b for binding to transmembrane protein Frizzled4. Proceedings of the
597   National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 108:14962–14967.
598   https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1100513108

599   45.   Naisbitt S, Kim E, Tu JC, et al (1999) Shank, a novel family of postsynaptic density
600   proteins that binds to the NMDA receptor/PSD-95/GKAP complex and cortactin. Neuron
601   23:569–582. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0896-6273(00)80809-0

602   46.   Huang J, Polgár E, Solinski HJ, et al (2018) Circuit dissection of the role of somatostatin in
603   itch and pain. Nature Neuroscience 21:707–716. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-018-0119-
604   z

605   47.   Grimstad Ø, Sawanobori Y, Vestergaard C, et al (2009) Anti-interleukin-31-antibodies
606   ameliorate scratching behaviour in NC/Nga mice: a model of atopic dermatitis.
607   Experimental Dermatology 18:35–43. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0625.2008.00766.x

608   48.   Kim S, Kim H, Park D, et al (2020) Loss of IQSEC3 Disrupts GABAergic Synapse
609   Maintenance and Decreases Somatostatin Expression in the Hippocampus. Cell Reports
610   30:1995-2005.e5.
611   https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CELREP.2020.01.053/ATTACHMENT/D265A14F-832D-4B2B-
612   AD52-23B0CEC64DD4/MMC1.PDF

613   49.   Marzo A, Galli S, Lopes D, et al (2016) Reversal of Synapse Degeneration by Restoring
614   Wnt Signaling in the Adult Hippocampus. Current Biology 26:2551–2561.
615   https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CUB.2016.07.024

616   50.   Bai B, Wang X, Li Y, et al (2020) Deep Multilayer Brain Proteomics Identifies Molecular
617   Networks in Alzheimer's Disease Progression. Neuron 105:975-991.e7.
618   https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEURON.2019.12.015

619   51.   McFarlane HG, Kusek GK, Yang M, et al (2008) Autism-like behavioral phenotypes in
620   BTBR T+tf/J mice. Genes, brain, and behavior 7:152–163. https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1601-
621   183X.2007.00330.X

622   52.   Fernandez SP, Gaspar P (2012) Investigating anxiety and depressive-like phenotypes in
623   genetic mouse models of serotonin depletion. Neuropharmacology 62:144–154.
624   https://doi.org/10.1016/J.NEUROPHARM.2011.08.049

625   53.   Kjelstrup KG, Tuvnes FA, Steffenach H-A, et al (2002) Reduced fear expression after
626   lesions of the ventral hippocampus. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 99:10825–10830.
627   https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.152112399

54. Padilla-Coreano N, Bolkan SS, Pierce GM, et al (2016) Direct Ventral Hippocampal-
Prefrontal Input Is Required for Anxiety-Related Neural Activity and Behavior. Neuron
89:857–866. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2016.01.011

55. Su X, Li W, Lv L, et al (2021) Transcriptome-Wide Association Study Provides Insights Into
the Genetic Component of Gene Expression in Anxiety. Front Genet 12:740134.
https://doi.org/10.3389/fgene.2021.740134

56. Revest J-M, Dupret D, Koehl M, et al (2009) Adult hippocampal neurogenesis is involved in
anxiety-related behaviors. Mol Psychiatry 14:959–967. https://doi.org/10.1038/mp.2009.15

57. Heppt J, Wittmann M-T, Schäffner I, et al (2020) β-catenin signaling modulates the tempo
of dendritic growth of adult-born hippocampal neurons. EMBO J 39:e104472.
https://doi.org/10.15252/embj.2020104472

58. Maeng LY, Milad MR (2015) Sex Differences in Anxiety Disorders: Interactions between
Fear, Stress, and Gonadal Hormones. Horm Behav 76:106–117.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yhbeh.2015.04.002

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

DESeq2 results. BaseMean is DESeq2's estimated gene expression across all samples. Red,

Adjusted $p < 0.05$; blue, adjusted $p < 0.01$. Selected genes of interest are labeled. D, GO

Biological Process Fold Enrichment (FE) scores of categories above 2.0 FE. Dots represent

individual items in a functional category. P values were calculated as the average p-value for all

genes in a category; ***, $p < 0.001$. E, KEGG Pathways analysis (done in R using the mouse

KEGG database and the pathfindR package). Top 12 pathways are shown, ranked by adjusted

p-value. Gray dashed line indicates significance threshold ($p < 0.05$).

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 size

of nodes indicates significance (all nodes shown have Adjusted $p < 0.05$). Edge lengths have no

significance. GO Biological Process terms disrupted in *Tmem184b*^{+} 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 changes 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, the

top 50 gene set categories identified by Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) among

genes different between 5- and 15-month *Tmem184b*-mutant mice. Abbreviations: HD,

Huntington's Disease model mice; Oligo, oligodendrocytes; Ataxin, Ataxin-1 mutant mice. The

full list of molecular signatures is shown in Additional File 7.

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

Additional File 8.

Figure 6. Memory and Anxiety Behaviors in TMEM184B deficient 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. **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.

A

Wild Type

TMEM184B Gene Trap

PC2 (22.5% explained var.)

PC1 (40.3% explained var.)

B 5 month Gene Expression
Changes (Mut vs WT)

-log₁₀(Adj P-Val)

log₂(Fold Change)

n.s.

p < 0.05

C 5 month Gene Expression
Changes (Mut vs WT)

Log₂ Fold Change

Wdfy1

Pink1

Nrxn2

Shank1

Ppp1r9b

Sst

Log₁₀ Base Mean

n.s.

p < 0.05

p < 0.01

D GO Biological Process Categories (FE > 2)

Behavior ***

Synapse Assembly/Function ***

Other ***

Neural Development ***

Memory ***

Neuron Death Regulation ***

Fold Enrichment

E KEGG 2021 Pathways (Mouse)

Polycomb complex

Motor proteins

Parkinson disease

Renal cell carcinoma

ALS

Proteasome

Spliceosome

EBV Infection

Tight junction

Prion disease

Spinocerebellar ataxia

Huntington disease

-log₁₀(P value)

A Neuroligin 3 Subnetwork

B Shank1 Subnetwork

Gene Exp in Gene Trap
Up
Down

n.s.
p < 0.05

C GO Biological Process "Synapse" Subnetwork

D GO Biological Process "Neuron" Subnetwork

Fold Change
High
Low

Significance
Higher → Lower

A ChEA 2016 Mouse TFs

B TF Candidates

C TF Perturbations Mouse

A 15 month Gene Expression Changes (Mut compared to WT)

- n.s.
- p < 0.05
- p < 0.01

B

- 5 month: 883
- 222
- 15 month: 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 — 5 mo / 15 mo
Aging diff — Mut / WT

630, 182, 711, 15, 23, 43, 2, 2, 4, 6, 9, 1237, 74, 207, 1931

F Mouse and Human Models with Similar Gene Alterations (Categories)

- Ataxin **
- Huntington's ***
- Oligodendrocytes ***
- Other ***