A novel miR-99b-5p-*Zbp1* pathway in microglia contributes to the pathogenesis of schizophrenia

Lalit Kaurani[#*1], Md Rezaul Islam[*1], Urs Heilbronner[*2], Dennis M. Krüger[1], Jiayin Zhou[1], Aditi Methi[1],

Judith Strauss[3], Ranjit Pradhan[1], Susanne Burkhardt[1], Tonatiuh Pena[1], Lena Erlebach[4], Anika Bühler[4],

Monika Budde[2], Fanny Senner[2], Mojtaba Oraki Kohshour[2], Eva C. Schulte[2,5,,6,7], Max Schmauß[8], Eva Z.

Reininghaus[9], Georg Juckel[10], Deborah Kronenberg-Versteeg[4], Ivana Delalle[11], Francesca Odoardi[3],

Alexander Flügel[3], Thomas G. Schulze[#2], Peter Falkai[#5], Farahnaz Sananbenesi[#12], Andre Fischer[#1, 13, 14]

* These authors contributed equally to this work

Co-corresponding authors: lalit.kaurani@dzne.de; thomas.schulze@med.uni-muenchen.de;

peter.falkai@med.uni-muenchen.de; fsananb@gwdg.de; a.fischer@mail.gwdg.de

[1]Department for Epigenetics and Systems Medicine in Neurodegenerative Diseases, German Center for

Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE) Goettingen, 37077 Goettingen, Germany

[2]Institute of Psychiatric Phenomics and Genomics (IPPG), University Hospital, LMU Munich, Germany

[3]Institute for Neuroimmunology and Multiple Sclerosis Research, University Medical Center Göttingen,

Göttingen, Germany

[4]Department of Cellular Neurology, Hertie Institute for Clinical Brain Research, University of Tübingen,

Germany; Germany and German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE) Tübingen, Germany

[5]Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Hospital, LMU Munich, Germany

[6]Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Hospital Bonn, Medical Faculty, University of Bonn,

Bonn, Germany.

[7]Institute of Human Genetics, University Hospital Bonn, Medical Faculty, University of Bonn, Bonn, Germany.

[8]Clinic for Psychiatry, Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics, Augsburg University, Medical Faculty,

Bezirkskrankenhaus Augsburg, Augsburg, 86156, Germany

[9]Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapeutic Medicine, Research Unit for Bipolar Affective Disorder,

Medical University of Graz, Graz, 8036, Austria [eva.reininghaus@medunigraz.at]

[10]Department of Psychiatry, Ruhr University Bochum, LWL University Hospital, Bochum, 44791, Germany

[11]Department of Pathology, Lifespan Academic Medical Center, Alpert Medical School of Brown University,

Providence, RI 02903, USA

[12]Research Group for Genome Dynamics in Brain Diseases, 37077 Goettingen, Germany.

[13]Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medical Center Goettingen, 37077 Goettingen,

Germany

[14]Cluster of Excellence "Multiscale Bioimaging: from Molecular Machines to Networks of Excitable Cells"

(MBExC), University of Göttingen, Germany

Abstract

Schizophrenia is a psychiatric disorder that is still not readily treatable. Pharmaceutical advances in the treatment of schizophrenia have mainly focused on the protein coding part of the human genome. However, the vast majority of the human transcriptome consists of non-coding RNAs. MicroRNAs are small non-coding RNAs that control the transcriptome at the systems level. In the present study we analyzed the microRNAome in blood and postmortem brains of controls and schizophrenia patients and found that miR-99b-5p was downregulated in both the prefrontal cortex and blood of patients. At the mechanistic level we show that inhibition of miR-99b-5p leads to schizophrenia-like phenotypes in mice and induced inflammatory processes in microglia linked to synaptic pruning. The miR-99b-5p-mediated inflammatory response in microglia depended on *Z-DNA binding protein 1* (*Zbp1*) which we identified as a novel miR-99b-5p target. Antisense oligos (ASOs) against *Zbp1* ameliorated the pathological phenotypes caused by miR-99b-5p inhibition. In conclusion, we report a novel miR-99b-5p-*Zbp1* pathway in microglia that contributes to the pathogenesis of schizophrenia. Our data suggest that strategies to increase the levels of miR-99b-5p or inhibit *Zbp1* could become a novel therapeutic strategy.

Introduction

Schizophrenia (SZ) is a devastating psychiatric disorder, and the difficulties involved in treating and managing it make it one of the ten most expensive disorders for health care systems worldwide [1] [2]. SZ is believed to evolve on the background of complex genome-environment interactions that alter the cellular homeostasis as well as the structural plasticity of brain cells. Thus, genetic predisposition and environmental risk factors seem to affect processes that eventually contribute to the manifestation of clinical symptoms [3] [4] [5]. Despite the available pharmacological and non-pharmacological treatment options, a significant number of patients do not benefit from these treatments in the long-term, underscoring the need for novel and potentially stratified therapeutic approaches [6]. So far, drug development has focused on the human transcriptome that encodes proteins, but the success of this approach is limited [7]. However, most of the transcriptome consists of non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) which are recognized as key regulators of cellular functions [8]. Therefore, RNA therapeutics represent an emerging concept that may expand current therapeutic strategies focused on the protein-coding part of our genome [9] [10]. RNA therapies utilize, for example, antisense oligonucleotides (ASOs), siRNA, microRNA (miR) mimics or corresponding anti-miRs to control the expression of genes and proteins implicated in disease onset and progression [11] [9]. Of particular interest are miRs, which are 19-22 nucleotide-long RNA molecules that regulate

protein homeostasis via binding to target mRNAs, leading either to their degradation or reduced

translation [12]. miRs have been intensively studied as biomarkers and therapeutic targets in cancer

[11] and cardiac diseases [13]. There is also emerging evidence from genetic studies in humans as well

as functional data from mouse models that miRs play a role in CNS diseases including SZ [14] [15] [16]

[17]. In addition, several studies reported changes in miR expression in blood samples of SZ patients

using either qPCR analysis of selected targets or genome-wide approaches. The current findings have

been summarized in several review articles [18] [19] [20]. Despite this progress, there are still only few

reports on the function of candidate miRs [21]. Nevertheless, analysis of miRs in liquid biopsies is

highly valuable because one miR can affect many target genes, and thus changes in miR expression

can indicate the presence of multiple pathologies [22] [14] [23]. Moreover, miRs also participate in

inter-organ communication [24] [25], suggesting that alterations of miR expression in liquid biopsies

may inform about relevant pathological processes in other organs, including the brain. This is

important since the analysis of the molecular processes underlying neuropsychiatric diseases in post-

mortem human brain tissue is challenging because it might be affected e.g. by peri-mortem events or

the timing of post-mortem tissue sampling. Furthermore, the onset of the disease often precedes

tissue collection by decades. In contrast, liquid biopsies such as blood samples are easy to collect on

the premise that molecular changes in blood mirror changes in the brain. In this context, the analysis

of the microRNAome in liquid biopsies could be a suitable approach to identify candidate microRNAs

that may play a role in the onset and progression of SZ.

In the present study we performed small RNA sequencing in blood samples of control participants (n

= 331) and schizophrenia patients (n = 242) of the PsyCourse Study [26] (http://www.psycourse.de/).

By cross-correlating our findings with data from post-mortem human brain tissue, we identified miR-

99b-5p as a promising biomarker candidate that is decreased in blood and in the prefrontal cortex of

SZ patients, and correlates with disease phenotypes. Furthermore, we found decreased levels of miR-

99b-5p in the prefrontal cortex of mice to elicit SZ-like phenotypes and activate pathways linked to

innate immunity. In line with these observations, inhibition of miR-99b-5p in microglia increased

phagocytosis and reduced the number of synapses. Finally, we were able to demonstrate that this

effect is controlled by the miR-99b-5p target gene *Zbp1*, an upstream regulator of innate immunity

[27]. Taken together, our data suggest that targeting miR-99b-5p or its target *Zbp1* could provide a

novel approach towards the treatment of SZ patients.

Results

miR-99b-5p expression is decreased in SZ patients

To identify microRNAs that play a role in the pathogenesis of SZ, we conducted small RNA sequencing

of blood samples obtained from 573 participants of the PsyCourse Study (http://www.psycourse.de/).

We analyzed 331 healthy controls and 242 SZ patients **(Fig. 1a, Fig. EV1, supplemental table 1)** [26].

After data normalization and correction for confounding factors, we performed a weighted gene co-

expression network analysis (WGCNA) and detected 8 co-expression modules that significantly

differed between groups. Three were significantly decreased **(Fig. 1b)** while 5 were increased **(Fig. 1c)**

in SZ patients **(supplemental table 2)**. The turquoise, yellow, blue and red modules displayed the most

significant differences among the groups ($P < 0.0001$). We then investigated whether the expression

levels of any of these modules correlated with the clinical phenotypes defined by the positive and

negative syndrome rating scale (PANSS) and Beck depression inventory (BDI-II), both of which are

decreased in SZ patients, and/or the global assessment of functioning (GAF) score, which is increased

in these patients **(Fig. EV1)**. Out of the 8 co-expression modules the turquoise, yellow, blue and red

modules were significantly correlated to all disease phenotypes. The turquoise module exhibited a

significant negative correlation to the PANSS and BDI-II score and a positive correlation with the GAF

score **(Fig. 1d)**, which is in line with the decreased expression of this module in SZ. The green, yellow,

blue and red modules were positively correlated to the PANSS and BDI-II scores and exhibited a

negative correlation with the GAF score, which is in agreement with their increased expression in SZ

(Fig. 1d). The pink module was negatively correlated to the PANSS scores and positively correlated to

the GAF, which is also in agreement with its decreased expression in SZ patients. However, the pink

module was not correlated to the BDI-II score **(Fig. 1d)**. The black and the brown modules were not

significantly correlated any of the analyzed phenotypes. Taken together, these data suggest that

especially the microRNAs present in turquoise, pink, green, blue, yellow and red modules warrant

further analysis. When we subjected the confirmed targets of the microRNAs present within each of

these modules to a GO-term analysis, we observed that most modules were linked to inflammatory

processes, which is in agreement with a suggested role of neuro-inflammation in the pathogenesis of

SZ [28] **(Fig. EV2; Supplemental table 3)**. While WGCNA is a suitable first approach to identify groups

of candidate microRNAs, we also performed a differential expression analysis to directly compare the

microRNAome in control vs SZ patients. We found 59 microRNA that were significantly increased in SZ

patients while 34 microRNAs were decreased **(Fig 1e, Supplemental table 4).**

With the aim to further refine the list of candidate microRNAs that may play a role in the pathogenesis

of SZ, we performed small RNA sequencing from the prefrontal cortex of SZ patients (n=13) and

controls (n=17). We detected 36 microRNAs that were significantly decreased in SZ patients (FDR <

0,01, log2FC > 1) and 32 that were significantly upregulated **(Fig. 1f, supplemental table 5)**. Next, we

examined whether any of these microRNAs are also found among the differentially expressed

microRNAs that were altered in blood samples when compared via differential expression analysis, and within the co-expression modules decreased in SZ patients. Three miRs of the yellow cluster were significantly increased in the brain and in the blood when analyzed via differential expression analysis. In addition, one miR of the blue and one of the green clusters were also increased in brain and blood. These were miR-101-3p, miR-378a-3p, miR-21-5p, miR-192-5p and miR-103a-3p **(supplemental table 6)**. MiR- 21-3p has been associated with SZ while the other 4 miRs have been studied in the context of other neuropsychiatric or neurodegenerative diseases **(supplemental table 6)**. When analyzing the down-regulated miRs we found four microRNAs, namely miR-500a-3p, miR-501-3p, miR-221-5p and miR-99b-5p, that were detected in the turquoise module and were also decreased in the postmortem brain of SZ patients **(Fig. 1g)**. Of these 4 microRNAs miR-501-3p has been recently linked to schizophrenia [21] **(supplemental table 6)** while miR-99b-5p was the only candidate that was part of a significantly downregulated co-expression module and was significantly downregulated in the brain and blood of SZ patients when analyzed via differential expression analysis**.**

In summary, our data reveal a number of interesting candidate miRs such as miR-501-3p and miR-21-5p that have been already linked to SZ in previous studies [29] [21]. Most of the other miRs have been detected in the context of other brain diseases including Alzheimer's disease (AD), Major depression (MD) or Amytrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) **(supplemental table 6)**. Expect for miR-500a-3p and miR-221-5p, the expression of all other candidate miRs have is significantly correlated to the PANSSs, GAF and BDI-II scores **(Fig. 1h, Fig. EV3)**. While all of these candidate miRs would warrant further functional analysis in the context of SZ, we decided to focus on miR-99b-5p since it has not been linked to any brain disease yet and comparatively little is known about this miR in general.

Decreasing miR-99b-5p leads to SZ-like phenotypes in mice and the upregulation of genes linked to inflammatory processes

The role of miR-99b-5p in the brain has not been intensively studied and thus no data are available in the context of neuropsychiatric diseases such as SZ, making it a novel candidate in need of further evaluation. Before performing mechanistic studies, we decided to employ mice in a model system to test the hypothesis that decreased expression of miR-99b-5p is causatively linked to the development of SZ-like phenotypes. Therefore, we generated lipid nanoparticles (LNPs) containing locked nucleic acid (LNA) representing miR-99b-5p inhibitors (anti-miR99b) and injected these into the prefrontal cortex (PFC) of mice. LNAs representing a scrambled sequence were used as controls (sc-control). MiR-99b-5p levels were significantly decreased in the PFC when measured 5 or 10 days after the injections **(Fig 2a)**. To test schizophrenia-like behaviors in animals, we injected either anti-miR-99b or sc-control to the PFC of mice. Explorative behavior measured in the open field test was similar in all groups **(Fig**

2b). However, anti-miR-99b-treated mice spent less time in the center of the open field, which is indicative of increased anxiety **(Fig 2c)**, a phenotype commonly observed in schizophrenia patients [30]. We also analyzed anxiety behavior in the elevated plus maze test. Anti-miR-99b treated mice spent less time in the open arms, which indicates increased anxiety **(Fig 2d)**. Another valid animal model to test schizophrenia-like behavior in rodents is the pre-pulse inhibition of the startle response (PPI) which is used to measure sensory-gating function [31]. PPI is impaired in SZ patients, can easily be assayed in mice and is impaired in mouse models for SZ [32] [33]. We observed that mice injected with anti-miR-99b displayed significantly impaired PPI responses when compared to the sc-control group **(Fig 2e)**. The basic startle response was unaffected **(Fig. 2f)**, suggesting that decreasing the levels of miR-99b-5p in the PFC of mice can lead to SZ-like phenotypes.

To gain first insights into the molecular processes controlled by miR-99b-5p in the brain, we injected another group of mice with anti-miR-99b and sc-control oligonucleotides and isolated PFC tissue 5 days later for RNA sequencing analysis. Differential expression analysis revealed 147 deregulated genes (adjusted *p*-value < 0.1, log2FC +/- 0.2), of which 113 genes were upregulated and 34 were downregulated **(Fig. 2g; supplemental table 7)**. Gene ontology (GO) analysis revealed that upregulated genes were linked to processes such as innate immunity and interferon signaling **(Fig. 2h)**. GO analysis of the downregulated genes did not yield any highly significant pathways but detected processes linked to voltage-gated potassium channels **(Fig 2h, supplemental table 8)**. These data suggest that miR-99b-5p in the PFC may regulate mRNAs linked to immune-related processes. To further test this hypothesis, we compared the list of upregulated genes with gene expression data from neurons, astrocytes and microglia as well as genes present within 3 different immune function-related gene expression databases. We observed that the upregulated genes were highly enriched in microglia (P = 4 x 10^{-12}), while no enrichment was observed in astrocytes or neurons. The downregulated genes were significantly enriched in neurons (P = 1.38 x 10^{-12}). In line with this, the upregulated genes were significantly overrepresented in 3 databases for genes linked to immune function, namely the immune, immunome and IRIS databases **(Fig. 2i)**. Together, these data suggest that the levels of miR-99b-5p in the PFC of mice may specifically increase the expression of immune-related genes in microglia. To further test this we administered anti-miR-99b or sc-control to the PFC of mice and subsequently isolated CD45^{low}/CD11b^{+} microglial cells via fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS). While microglia cell numbers did not differ between groups, miR-99b-5p expression was significantly decreased in microglia isolated from anti-miR-99b-treated mice **(Fig. EV4).** The expression of selected pro-inflammatory genes *Il1ß, Tgfb1* and *Tnfα* that were upregulated in the RNA-seq dataset were also increased in microglia obtained from anti-miR-99b-treated mice, although *Tgfβ1* failed to reach significance (P = 0.08) **(Fig 2j)**.

These data suggest that miR-99b-5p controls microglia-mediated immunity in the PFC, which is in

agreement with previous studies linking aberrant microglia function and neuroinflammation to the

pathogenesis of SZ [34].

miR-99b-5p controls microglia-mediated immune function and affects dendritic spine number

To further explore the role of miR-99b-5p in microglia, we cultured primary microglia from the cortex

of mice and treated these cells with anti-miR-99b or sc-control LNAs followed by RNA sequencing **(Fig**

3a). Differential expression analysis revealed 139 deregulated genes, of which 104 were up- and 35

were downregulated **(Fig 3b, supplemental table 9)**. GO-term and KEGG-pathway analysis revealed

that the upregulated genes were linked to immune activation and phagocytosis **(Fig 3c; supplemental**

table 10). In agreement with the *in vivo* data, we observed an increased expression of *Il1ß, Tgfb1, and*

Tnfα, which could be confirmed via qPCR **(Fig 3d; see also Fig EV4c)**. Next, we investigated

phagocytosis, a key function of microglia that is altered during neuroinflammation [35]. In a first

approach we employed immortalized microglia (IMG) cells. Similar to the treatment with the

lipopolysaccharide (LPS) commonly used to induce microglia activation, inhibition of miR-99b-5p

caused an upregulation of proinflammatory cytokines and increased phagocytosis as measured via the

uptake of fluorescent latex beads **(Fig. EV5)**. Encouraged by these data we performed similar

experiments in primary microglia isolated from the mouse PFC. In line with the data obtained in IMG

cells, treatment of primary microglia with anti-miR-99b LNAs significantly increased phagocytosis **(Fig**

3e).

Aberrant microglia activity can have detrimental effects on neuronal plasticity [36]. To test whether

the reduced expression of miR-99b-5p in microglia could affect neuronal plasticity, we performed a

co-culturing experiment. Primary microglia were first treated with sc-control or anti-miR-99b LNAs for

48 h before being harvested and transferred to cortical neuronal cultures **(Fig 3f)**. RNA was isolated

from these co-cultures after 48 h and subjected to RNA-seq. Differential expression analysis revealed

366 deregulated genes (155 upregulated and 211 downregulated genes, adjusted p value < 0.05,

log2FC +/- 0.1); **Fig. 3g, supplemental table 11**). GO term analysis of the upregulated genes revealed

neuroinflammatory processes, neuron death, neuron apoptotic processes as well as synaptic pruning

(Fig 3h, supplemental table 12_UP), while downregulated genes were associated with processes

indicating loss of synaptic function such as regulation of axon extension or synapse organization **(Fig**

3h, supplemental table 12_DOWN).

These data are in agreement with our previous findings suggesting that loss of miR-99b-5p increases

inflammatory processes in microglia. More importantly, the data suggest that microglia lacking miR-

99b-5p may have detrimental effects on synaptic function when co-cultured with cortical neurons. It

is particularly interesting that synaptic pruning is detected as a major process increased in the co-
cultures, since synaptic pruning has been linked to SZ [36]. In line with this, key factors of the
complement system known to drive pathological synaptic pruning were increased in primary microglia
treated with anti-miR-99b, as well as in the corresponding co-cultures and also in the postmortem
human prefrontal cortex of schizophrenia patients **(Fig EV6)**. When we analyzed the number of
dendritic spines, we observed that spine density was significantly reduced in neurons co-cultured with
microglia that had received anti-miR-99b, when compared to cultures treated with corresponding
control microglia **(Fig 3 i)**.

miR99b-5p control neuroinflammation via the regulation of Zbp1

The three RNAseq datasets obtained from the PFC of mice, primary microglia and the co-cultures
consistently show that knockdown of miR-99b-5p increases the expression of genes linked to
inflammatory processes. Many of the gene expression changes likely represent secondary effects. To
better understand the mechanisms by which miR-99b-5p controls neuroinflammation, we aimed to
identify direct targets of miR-99b-5p (**supplemental table 13**). When we analyzed the RNA-seq data
obtained from the PFC (see Fig 2), we identified 13 out of 113 genes as potential mRNA targets of
miR99b-5p **(Fig 4A)**. GO term analysis was performed for the 13 genes and revealed that they are
linked to inflammatory processes including type I interferon signaling **(Fig. EV7, supplemental table
14)**, linked to schizophrenia [37] [38]. Seven of these genes were also upregulated in primary microglia
treated with anti-miR-99b, and among them were key regulators of inflammatory processes such as
Stat1 which was found to be hyperactive in blood samples of SZ patients [39]. A gene that specifically
caught our attention was *Zbp1* because the corresponding protein - also known as the DNA-dependent
activator of interferon regulatory factors (*Dai*) - is a key regulator of pro-inflammatory processes that
result in the activation of inflammatory caspases and the induction of *Il1ß* [27]. Thus, *Zbp1*
represented a rather upstream factor in the inflammatory cascade. On this basis, we speculated that
the regulation of *Zbp1* could be a key mechanism by which miR-99b-5p regulates inflammatory
processes and may contribute to the pathogenesis of SZ when it is increased.

First, we performed a luciferase assay to directly test the regulation of *Zbp1* by miR-99b-5p. We used
the renilla dual luciferase reporter vector harboring the *Zbp1*-3'UTR. Co-transfection of this vector
with miR-99b-5p LNAs significantly reduced the luciferase activity **(Fig 4b)**, but this was not the case
when scramble control LNAs were used **(Fig 4b)**. Moreover, we observed that ZBP1 protein levels were
significantly increased in primary microglia treated with anti-miR-99b **(Fig 4c)**. These data show that
miR-99b-5p can directly regulate *Zbp1* levels.

On this basis we decided to investigate whether the inflammatory phenotypes induced in response to decreased miR-99b-5p levels depend on *Zbp1*. So far, we have found that decreased levels of miR-99b-5p lead to enhanced phagocytosis and increased expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as *Il1ß* which has been associated with *ZBP1* activity [40]. Another important step in ZBP1-mediated orchestration of inflammation is the activation of pro-inflammatory caspases [41] [42], and therefore we examined whether reduced miR-99b-5p levels would also affect the activity of pro-inflammatory caspases. Indeed, when primary microglia were treated with anti-miR-99b, caspase activity was significantly increased when compared to that in cells treated with sc-control LNAs **(Fig. 4d)**. Similar findings were obtained when protein lysates isolated from the PFC of mice injected with either anti-miR-99b or sc-control LNAs were analyzed for caspase activity **(Fig. 4e)**.

To test whether the miR-99b-5p-mediated increase in caspase activity, *IL-1ß* expression and phagocytosis depends on *Zbp1*, we treated primary microglia with either anti-miR-99b alone or in combination with an anti-sense oligonucleotide (ASO) targeting *Zbp1* (*Zbp1*-ASO). In agreement with our previous observation, anti-miR-99b treatment increased caspase activity. This effect was ameliorated in microglia treated with anti-miR-99b and *Zbp1*-ASO **(Fig 4f)**. Similar observations were made when we analyzed *IL1ß* expression **(Fig. 4g)** and phagocytosis **(Fig 4h)**. These data suggest that ZBP-1 plays an important role in mediating the neuroinflammatory processes downstream of miR-99b-5p.

We performed parallel experiments in human iPSC-derived microglia. Similar to the mouse data, administration of anti-miR-99b increased caspase activity **(Fig 4i)**, IL-1ß expression **(Fig 4j)** and phagocytosis **(Fig 4k)** when compared to human iPSC-derived microglia treated with sc-control LNAs. These effects were attenuated when anti-miR-99 LNAs were co-administered with *Zbp1*-ASOs **(Fig 4i-k)**. These data suggest that in human microglia, miR-99b-5p also controls neuroinflammatory processes via the regulation of *Zbp-1* expression. In line with this interpretation, IL1ß and Zbp1 mRNA levels were increased in postmortem human brain samples from SZ patients and controls **(Fig. S8a)**.

To determine whether knockdown of *Zbp1* would also mitigate the effect of anti-miR-99b treatment on SZ-like behavior in mice, we injected either anti-miR-99b alone or in combination with *Zbp1*-ASOs into the PFC of mice before subjecting the animals to behavior testing. Mice injected with sc-control LNAs served as controls. The corresponding data revealed that *Zbp1* knockdown rescues anti-miR-99b-mediated impairment of PPI **(Fig. S8)**.

Our findings suggest that reduced miR-99b-5p levels in microglia contribute to the pathogenesis of schizophrenia via the regulation of *Zbp1*-controlled neuroinflammation. Therefore, miR-99b-5p may constitute a novel biomarker for SZ, while targeting miR-99b-5p and/or ZBP1 might represent an effective SZ treatment

Discussion

In this study we combined the analysis of blood samples and postmortem brain tissue to identify miRs involved in the pathogenesis of SZ. Using WGCNA as well as differential expression analysis in blood samples, we identified several miRs that differed between patients and controls and were significantly correlated with SZ phenotypes. GO term analysis of the confirmed target genes of these miRs hinted at a number of molecular processes of which pathways linked to immune function were overrepresented. Such a GO term analysis based on miR target genes is, of course, not ultimately conclusive but our observation is in agreement with previous studies showing that neuroinflammation plays a role in the pathogenesis of SZ [43] [44]. To further refine the identification of miRs linked to SZ we also performed a differential expression analysis of the small RNA seq data obtained from blood as well as from postmortem brain tissue of SZ patients and controls. We eventually identified five candidate miRs, miR-101-3p, miR-378a-3p, miR-21-5p, miR-192-5p and miR-103a-3p, that were increased in the blood and brain of SZ patients. All of these miRs have been implicated brain and non-brain diseases. For example, knock-down of miR-101-3p in the hippocampus impairs learning in mice [45] while increased circulating levels of miR-101-3p have been observed in patients suffering from autism [46], attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder [47] but also diabetes [48] [49] or cancer [50]. MiR-378a-3p has been associated with cerebral ischemia [51] is increased in blood samples of Down syndrome patients [52] and was reported to be part of a blood-miR signature that can distinguish Alzheimer's disease patients from control [53]. miR-21-5p was found to be increased in blood samples of SZ patients [29], while antipsychotic treatment is correlated with decreased miR-21-3p expression [54]. Moreover, miR-21-3p was altered in blood samples of patients suffering from bipolar disease [55]. However, altered miR-21-3p has also been observed in various other diseases and is for example increased in patients with lung cancer [56]. Several studies have linked miR-192-5p to cognitive function and depression. For example, miR-192-5p was decreased in the blood AD patients upon aerobic exercise [57] and was altered in the brains of patients suffering from major depressive disorder [58], while increasing the levels of miR-192-5p in a mouse model for depression ameliorated cognitive impairments [59]. Finally, altered blood levels of miR-103-3p have been linked to childhood traumatization and depression [60] as well as Autism [61].

Four miRs, miR-500a-3p, miR-501-3p, miR-221-5p and miR-99b-5p, that all originated from the ME_Turquoise co-expression module which was downregulated in SZ patients and significantly correlated to SZ phenotypes, were also decreased in the postmortem brains of SZ patients   . A recent study identified miR-501-3p as a schizophrenia-associated miR as it was found to be decreased in blood samples of monozygotic twins discordant for SZ [21]. The authors went on to show that loss of miR-501-3p in mice leads to SZ-like phenotypes, a finding that was linked to miR-501-3p-mediated

regulation of *metabotropic glutamate receptor 5* expression in the cortex. These data are in

agreement with our observation that miR-501-3p was decreased in SZ patients of the PsyCourse study

as well as in the postmortem brains of SZ patients. As to the other 3 miRs, there are thus far no data

on the role of miR-500a-3p in the CNS, and while miR-221-5p has recently been linked to the regulation

of synaptic processes [62], there are still also no data on the role of miR-221-5p in SZ. As regards to

miR-99b-5p, no functional data are available on its role in the CNS, and no report has as yet implicated

this miR in the pathogenesis of SZ.

In summary, we have discovered miRs that have already been linked to the pathogenesis of SZ or

other brain diseases, as well as miRs that have not been extensively studied so far. These data

suggests that our approach may provide a viable means to detect novel SZ-associated miRs.

To test this hypothesis, we decided to investigate miR-99b-5p that was part of the ME_Turquoise

co-expression module but was also decreased in the postmortem brain of SZ patients as well as in the

blood of SZ patients, when the data was analyzed via differential expression. Moreover, essentially

nothing was known about the role of miR-99b-5p in the adult brain. Inhibiting miR-99b-5p in the

prefrontal cortex of mice led to impaired PPI and increased anxiety. PPI is impaired in SZ patients and

in mouse models for SZ [32] [33]. Furthermore, increased anxiety is a phenotype often observed in SZ

patients [30], suggesting that reduced miR-99b-5p levels are indeed linked to the development of SZ-

like phenotypes. Nevertheless, these data cannot establish a clearly causal link between reduced miR-

99b-5p expression and the pathogenesis of SZ in humans, since no animal model can fully recapitulate

the complex processes in human patients due to functional and structural differences in cortical

anatomy [63] [64].

However, that miR-99b-5p is involved in the pathogenesis in SZ is further underscored by the

results of our molecular analysis. RNA-seq analysis of the prefrontal cortex of mice revealed that

inhibition of miR-99b-5p mainly led to an increased expression of genes, which is in agreement with

the established action of miRs in controlling mRNA levels. Furthermore, the upregulated genes were

almost exclusively related to immunity pathways in microglia, a process which has been linked to the

pathogenesis of SZ by various means. For example, altered microglia have been observed in

postmortem brain samples of SZ patients [65]. In addition, epidemiological data demonstrated a

correlation between immune diseases and SZ [66], while several neuroimaging studies reported an

increase in activated microglia in the brains of SZ patients [67] [68]. Finally, studies in animal models

have implicated aberrant microglia activation with the onset of SZ-like phenotypes [69] [70]. While

miR-99b-5p has not been studied in microglia so far, these data are in line with previous reports

demonstrating a role of the miR-99b in the modulation of inflammatory responses. For example, miR-

99b levels are decreased in tumor-associated macrophages and re-expression of miR-99b attenuates

tumor growth [71]. Furthermore, inhibition of miR-99b in dendritic cells significantly elevated the

levels of proinflammatory cytokines including *Il1ß* and *Tnfα* [72]. These findings are in agreement with

our data showing that inhibition of miR-99b-5p in the prefrontal cortex of mice increased the

expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines including *Il1ß* and *Tnfα* in microglia that we had isolated

from the brains of these mice via FACS. A strong upregulation of genes linked to inflammatory

processes, including the upregulation of *Il1ß* and *Tnfα,* was also observed when miR-99b-5p was

inhibited in IMG cells or primary microglia. This is interesting since increased *Ill1 ß* and *Tnfα* levels

have been repeatedly reported in SZ patients [73] and may offer novel therapeutic avenues. For

example, inhibition of TNF*α* was recently shown to ameliorate disease phenotypes in different mouse

models of SZ [70].

Aberrant microglia activation can affect neuronal function via synaptic pruning, a process that is

based on the phagocytic activity of microglia [74]. We observed that inhibition of miR-99b-5p in IMG

cells and in primary microglia increased their phagocytic activity. Moreover, cortical neurons co-

cultured with microglia that were treated with anti-miR-99b oligonucleotides displayed differentially

expressed genes, of which the downregulated genes were linked to GO terms such as synapse

assembly, regulation of synaptic plasticity or dendritic spine organization. As for the upregulated

genes, the most significant GO term was synapse pruning. Since our data also revealed that neurons

co-cultured with anti-miR-99b-treated microglia indeed displayed a reduced number of dendritic

spines, our findings suggest a scenario in which reduced levels of miR-99b-5p lead to an upregulation

of proinflammatory processes in microglia, which eventually impacts on synaptic structure. This

interpretation is in agreement with previous reports suggesting that aberrant microglia activation

leads to pathological synaptic pruning, which in turn leads to plasticity defects which could drive the

pathogenesis of SZ [36] [75]. Notably, the increased expression of several complement factors in

microglia have been implicated in this process [76]. In line with these data, we observed increased

expression of key complement factors in primary microglia and in corresponding microglia/neuron co-

cultures in which miR-99b-5p was inhibited, as well as in postmortem brain samples from SZ patients.

In summary, these findings provide a plausible mechanism on how reduced levels of miR-99b-5p can

contribute to the pathogenesis of SZ, namely the induction of a pro-inflammatory response associated

with synaptic pruning. Nevertheless, we cannot exclude that additional mechanisms within microglia

or other neural cells play a role.

MiRs mediate their biological action by controlling the expression of specific target mRNAs. Our data

showed that within microglia, miR-99b-5p controls the expression of the *Zbp1* gene that plays an

important role in the innate immune response [27]. ZBP1 acts as sensor for Z-DNA/Z-RNA and controls

inflammatory pathways such as type I interferon-signaling and other pathways, eventually leading to

the upregulation of various pro-inflammatory cytokines including e.g. the induction of *IL1ß* [77] [78]
[40].

These data suggest that reduced levels of miR-99b-5p in microglia contribute to SZ-like
phenotypes because the tight control of *Zbp1* levels is lost. In line with this interpretation, we
demonstrated that the administration of *Zbp1*-ASO rescues the effects of anti-miR-99b treatment on
SZ-like phenotypes in mice as well as in the corresponding cellular alterations observed in primary
microglia from mice as well as in microglia derived from human iPSCs. Interestingly, the cellular
processes we find to be affected by altered miR-99b-5p and *Zbp1* levels have also been implicated in
other brain diseases. Thus, it will be important to investigate the role of miR-99b-5p and *Zbp1* in other
neuropsychiatric diseases. Moreover, aberrant microglia activation and synaptic pruning is observed
in neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease [79], and ZBP1 also controls the NRLP3
inflammasome [78], a key regulator of neuroinflammatory phenotypes in Alzheimer's disease [80]. In
this context it is interesting to note that one study found decreased miR-99b-5p levels in plasma
samples obtained in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease when measured at 6 and 9 months of age,
while increased levels were reported in older mice [81]. These data might underscore the need for
further study as to the role of *miR-99b-5p* and *Zbp1* in microglia obtained from wild type mice as well
as mouse models for neuropsychiatric or neurodegenerative diseases at different ages. Indeed, it is
well established that microglia undergo age-dependent functional changes and even differ between
brain regions [82] [83].

There are other questions we could not address within the scope of this manuscript. It will for
example be interesting to investigate the other candidate miRs we found in addition to miR-99b-5p.
Similarly, it will be important to study the potential miR-99b-5p targets we found in addition to *Zbp-1*
in the context of SZ. Another question relates to the mechanisms that underlie the downregulation of
miR-99b-5p in SZ patients. In future projects it will be interesting to test for example whether miR-
99b-5p is altered in SZ mouse models that are based on either genetic or environmental risk factors
such as early life stress. In addition, it will be important to identify the source of elevated miR-99b-5p
levels in blood samples of SZ patients. It is known that miRs can be transported from the brain to the
periphery within exosomes [84] [25], and recent studies reported the isolation of microglia-derived
exosomes from human blood [85]. While this approach is not undisputed, it will be interesting to apply
such methods to the PsyCourse Study, which is, however, beyond the scope of the current work.
Although our findings that miR-99b-5p is decreased in the brain and the blood of SZ patients support
the idea that the changes in blood may reflect corresponding changes in the brain, we cannot
conclusively answer this question at present. Rather, we suggest that the analysis of miR-99b-5p levels

in blood may eventually help stratify patients for treatment, including novel approaches based on RNA

therapeutics towards miR-99b-5p or *Zbp1*.

In conclusion, in the present study we identify a miR-99b-5p-*Zbp1* pathway in microglia as a

novel mechanism that likely contributes to the pathogenesis of schizophrenia. Our data also suggest

that strategies to increase the levels of miR-99b-5p or inhibit *Zbp1*, for example via ASOs, could serve

as novel therapeutic strategies for treating SZ patients.

Material and Methods

Human subjects:

All experiments involving human data were approved by the relevant Ethics committees (see Budde

et al.). Informed written consent was obtained for all subjects. Blood samples (PAXgene Blood RNA

Tubes; PreAnalytix, Qiagen) and behavioral data (supplemental table 1) of control and schizophrenia

patients were obtained from participants of the PsyCourse Study [26]. Psychiatric diagnoses were

confirmed using the Diagnosis and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fourth Edition (DSM-IV)

criteria. Control subjects were screened for psychiatric disorders using parts of the structured clinical

interviews for mental disorders across the lifespan (MINI-DIPS). All subjects were assessed for

psychiatric symptoms through a battery of standard tests including the Positive and Negative

Syndrome Scale (PANSS), the Global Assessment of Functioning Scale (GAF), and the Beck depression

inventory (BDI-II).

Post-mortem human brain samples:

Postmortem tissue samples (prefrontal cortex A9&24) from controls (n = 17; 5 females & 12 males;

age = 62.3 ± 18.9 years, PMD = 19.7 ± 6.7 h) and schizophrenia patients (n = 13; 5 females & 8 males;

age 57.7 ± 16.8 years, PMD = 21 ± 6.4 h) were obtained with ethical approval and upon informed

consent from the Harvard Brain Tissue Resource Center (Boston, USA). RNA was isolated using Trizol

as described in the manufacturer protocol using the Directzol RNA isolation kit (Zymo Research,

Germany). RNA concentration was determined by UV measurement. RNA integrity for library

preparation was assessed using an RNA 6000 NanoChip in a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies).

High throughput small RNAome sequencing:

Small RNAome libraries were prepared with total RNA according to the manufacturer's protocol with

NEBNext® small RNA library preparation kit. All human subject small RNAome libraries were prepared

with 150 ng of total RNA. Briefly, total RNA was used as starting material, and the first strand of cDNA

was generated, followed by PCR amplification. Libraries were pooled and PAGE was run for size

selection. For small RNAome, ~150 bp band was cut and used for library purification and

quantification. A final library concentration of 2 nM was applied for sequencing. The Illumina HiSeq

2000 platform was used for sequencing and was performed using a 50-bp single read setup. Illumina's

conversion software bcl2fastq (v2.20.2) was used for adapter trimming and converting the base calls

in the per-cycle BCL files to the per-read FASTQ format from raw images. Demultiplexing was carried

out using Illumina CASAVA 1.8. Sequencing adapters were removed using cutadapt-1.8.1. Sequence

data   quality   was   evaluated   using   FastQC   (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.

ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Sequencing quality was determined by the total number of reads, the

percentage of GC content, the N content per base, sequence length distribution, duplication levels,

overrepresented sequences and Kmer content.

*Da*ta processing, QC, and *Differential expression (DE) analysis:*

Sequencing data was processed using a customized in-house software pipeline. Quality control of raw

sequencing data was performed by using FastQC (v0.11.5). The quality of miRNAs reads was evaluated

by mirtrace (v1.0.1). Reads counts were generated using TEsmall (v0.4.0) which uses bowtie (v1.1.2)

for mapping. Reads were aligned to the Homo_sapiens GRCh38.p10 genome assembly (hg38). The

miRNA reads were annotated using miRBase. Read counts were normalized with the DESeq2 (v1.26.0)

package. Unwanted variance such as batch effects, library preparation effects, or technical variance

was removed using RUVSeq for all data (v1.20.0; k = 1 was used for factors of unwanted variation).

DeSeq2 was utilized for differential expression analysis and adjustment of confounding factors. In the

DESeq2 model, the PsyCourse data were corrected for sex, age and medication in DeSeq2. Volcano

plots were plotted with the R package EnhancedVolcano (v1.4.0).

WGCNA analysis:

microRNAome co-expression module analysis was carried out using the weighted gene co-expression

network analysis (WGCNA) package (version 1.61) in R [86]. We first regressed out age, gender, and

other latent factors from the sequencing data, and after that, normalized counts were log (base 2)

transformed. Next, the transformed data were used to calculate pairwise Pearson's correlations

between microRNAs and define a co-expression similarity matrix, which was further transformed into

an adjacency matrix. Next, a soft thresholding power of 8 was chosen based on approximate scale-

free topology and used to calculate pairwise topological overlap between microRNAs in order to

construct a signed microRNA network. Modules of co-expressed microRNAs with a minimum module

size of 10 were later identified using cutreeDynamic function with the following parameters: method

= "hybrid", deepSplit =4, pamRespectsDendro =F, pamStage = T. Closely related modules were merged

using a dissimilarity correlation threshold of 0.25. Different modules were summarized as a network

of modular eigengenes (MEs), which were then correlated with the different psychiatric symptoms

and functionality variables (e.g., PANSS, GAF etc). The module membership (MM) of microRNAs was

defined as the correlation of microRNA expression profile with MEs, and a correlation coefficient

cutoff of 0.5 was set to select the module specific microRNAs. The Pearson correlation of MEs and

psychiatric symptoms and functionality variable was plotted as a heat map.

Enriched gene ontology and pathways analysis:

To construct the Gene Regulatory network (GRN) for miRNA-target genes we retrieved validated

microRNA targets from miRTarBase (v 7.0) (http://mirtarbase.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/). microRNA target

genes were further filtered based on the expression in the brain. Brain-enriched expression was

examined using the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) database. (GTEx Consortium). To identify the

biological processes and their pathways in the miRNA-target genes, the ClueGO v2.2.5 plugin of

Cytoscape 3.2.1 was used [87]. In the ClueGo plugin [88] a two-sided hypergeometric test was used to

calculate the importance of each term and the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure was applied for the P

value correction. KEGG (https://www.genome.jp/kegg/) and Reactome (https://reactome.org/)

databases were used for the pathway analysis. To construct GRN for significantly deregulated mRNAs,

the ClueGO v2.2.5 plugin of Cytoscape 3.2.1 was used. Biological processes (BP) and pathways with

adjusted p value < 0.05 were selected for further analysis. For further analysis, cellular metabolism

and cancer-related biological processes were omitted. Key BPs with low levels of GOLevel (because

terms at lower levels are more specific and terms higher up are more general) were further considered

for data presentation and interpretation.

microRNA and mRNAs lipid nanoparticles preparation:

miR99b-5p inhibitor sequences were used to decrease the expression of miR99b-5p. To decrease the

expression of mRNAs, anti-sense oligos (ASO) were employed. ASOs, inhibitor and negative control

sequences were purchased from Qiagen. MicroRNA inhibitor, or ASOs lipid nanoparticle (LNP)

formulation, was achieved using a proprietary mixture of lipids containing an ionizable cationic lipid,

supplied as Neuro9™ siRNA Spark™ Kit (5 nmol). The miRNA inhibitor or ASOs were encapsulated using

a microfluidic system for controlled mixing conditions on the NanoAssemblr™ Spark™ system

(Precision Nanosystems, Canada). The experiments were performed as described in the

manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 5 nmol lyophilized microRNA inhibitor or ASOs were dissolved in

formulation buffer 1 (FB1) to a final concentration of 2 nmol. This solution was further diluted to a

final concentration of 930 ug/mL. Formulation buffer 2 (FB 2), microRNA inhibitor/ASOs in FB1, and

lipid nanoparticles were added to the cartridge and encapsulated using the NanoAssembler Spark
system.
549
Animals
C57BL/6J mice were purchased from Janvier and housed in an animal facility with a 12-h light–dark
cycle at constant temperature (23 °C) with *ad libitum* access to food and water. Animal experiments
complied with relevant ethical regulations and were performed as approved by the local ethics
committee. All experiments were performed with 3 months old male mice. Pre-frontal cortex (PFC)
region was dissected on day five after stereotaxic surgery for RNA-seq-based experiments.
556
Stereotaxic surgery:
For intracerebral stereotaxic injections of LNPs in the PFC, 3-month-old mice were anesthetized with
Rompun 5mg/kg and Ketavet 100mg/kg. After application of local anesthesia to the skull, two small
holes were drilled into the skull. Mice then received a bilateral injection of LNPs of microRNA
inhibitor/negative control or ASOs (dose: 0.15 ug/mL for microRNA inhibitor/negative control; dose:
0.3 ug/mL for ASO+ microRNA inhibitor mix). LNPs were injected with a rate of 0.3 μl/min per side.
Only 0.9 ul of LNPs were injected per hemisphere (0,5 μl/min). After surgery, all mice were monitored
until full recovery from the anesthesia and housed under standardized conditions.
565
Behavioral phenotyping:
The open field test was performed to evaluate locomotory and exploratory functions. Mice were
placed individually in the center of an open arena (of 1 m length, 1 m width, and side walls 20 cm
high). Locomotory activity was recorded for 5 min using the VideoMot2 tracking system (TSE Systems).
The elevated plus maze test was used to evaluate basal anxiety. Mice were placed individually in the
center of a plastic box consisting of two open and two walled closed arms (10 × 40 cm each, walls 40
cm high). Their behavior was recorded for 5 min using the VideoMot2 system. Time spent in open
versus closed arms was measured to assay basal anxiety phenotype. Prepulse inhibition (PPI) was
performed to test the acoustical startle response (ASR). ASR was completed in an enclosed sound-
attenuated startle box from TSA Systems. In brief, mice were placed individually inside a cage attached
with a piezoelectric transducer platform in a sound-attenuated startle cabinet. These sensory
transducers converted the movement of the platform induced by a startle response into a voltage
signal. Acoustic stimuli were executed through speakers inside the box. The mice were given 3 min to
habituate at 65 dB background noise and their activity was recorded for 2 min as baseline. After the
baseline activity recording, the mice were tested to six pulse-alone trials, at 120-dB startle stimuli

intensity for a duration of 40 ms. PPI of startle activity was measured by conducting trials for pre-pulse

at 120 dB for 40 ms or preceding non-startling prepulses of 70, 75, 80, 85, 90 dB.

RNA isolation:

Humans: PAXgene Blood RNA Tubes (PreAnalytix/Qiagen) were stored at -80°C. For RNA isolation, the

tubes were thawed and incubated at room temperature overnight. RNA was extracted according to

the manufacturer's protocol using PAXgene Blood RNA Kits (Qiagen). RNA concentrations were

measured by UV measurement. RNA integrity for library preparation was determined by analyzing

them on an RNA 6000 NanoChip using a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies).

Mice: The mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation on day five after stereotaxic surgery. Unilateral

PFC region was collected and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and later stored at -80°C until RNA

isolation. Total RNA was isolated using the trizol method as described by the manufacturer's protocol

using the Directzol RNA isolation kit (Zymo Research, Germany). The RNA concentration was

determined by UV measurement. RNA integrity for library preparation was assessed using a

Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies).

RNA sequencing:

Total RNA was used for the library preparation using the TrueSeq RNA library prep kit v2 (Illumina,

USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. 500 ng RNA was used as starting material. The quality

of the libraries was assessed using the Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies). Library concentration was

measured by Qubit™ dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Multiplexed libraries were

directly loaded onto a Hiseq2000 (Ilumina) with 50 bp single read setup.

The sequencing data were processed using a customized in-house software pipeline. Illumina's

conversion software bcl2fastq (v2.20.2) was employed for adapter trimming and converting the base

calls in the per-cycle BCL files to the per-read FASTQ format from raw images. Quality control of raw

sequencing data was carried out using FastQC (v0.11.5)(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.

ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Reads were aligned using the STAR aligner (v2.5.2b) and read counts were

generated using featureCounts (v1.5.1). The mouse genome version mm10 was utilized.

Publicly available datasets:

Various publicly available datasets were used in this study to explore cell type-specific expression of

differentially expressed genes. Published single cell data [89] were utilized to explore neuron-,

astrocyte-, and microglia-specific expression of genes. Immunome-related genes were retrieved from

the Immunome database. The Immune Response In Silico (IRIS) dataset was used to explore immunity-related genes [90] [91]

Primary microglia cultures:

Primary mouse microglia cell cultures were prepared as previously described for wild-type pups [92]. In brief, newborn mice (P1 pups) were used to prepare mixed glia cultures. Cells were grown in DMEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with 10% FBS, 20% L929 conditioned medium and 100 U ml–1 penicillin–streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Microglia were collected 10-12 days after cultivation by shake off, counted and plated in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 20% L929 conditioned medium and 100 U ml–1 penicillin–streptomycin. The microglia were shaken off up to two times.

Ex-vivo isolation of microglia:

PFC regions were dissected, mechanically dissociated and digested for 15 minutes with liberase (0.4 U/mL; Roche) and DNAse I (120 U/mL; Roche) at 37°C. Subsequently, the cell suspension was passed through a 70 µm cell strainer. Myelin debris was eliminated by the Percoll density gradient. Single cell suspension was labeled by using anti-mouse CD45 BV 421 (Clone 30-F11, Biolegend) and CD11b FITC (Clone M1/70, Biolegend). Antibody-labeled CD45^{low} CD11b^{+} microglial cells were sorted using a FACSAria 4L SORP cell sorter (Becton Dickinson) The purity of the sorted microglial cells was above 90%.

Primary neuronal culture:

Primary neuronal cultures were prepared from E17 pregnant mice of CD1 background (Janvier Labs, France). Briefly, mice were sacrificed and the brains of embryos were taken out, meninges removed, and the cortex dissected out. The cortexes were washed in 1× PBS (Pan Biotech, Germany). Single-cell suspensions were generated by incubating them with trypsin and DNase before careful disintegration. One hundred and thirty thousand cells per well were plated on poly-D-lysine-coated 24-well plates in Neurobasal medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany) supplemented with B-27 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Germany). Primary cortical neurons were used for experiments at DIV10-12.

Cell lines

All human iPSCs used in this study are commercially available and reported to be derived from material obtained under informed consent and appropriate ethical approvals.

Differentiation of microglia from induced pluripotent stem cells:

Human induced pluripotent stem cells lines (hiPSCs) (Cell line IDs: KOLF2.1J [93] were obtained from

The Jackson Laboratory; BIONi010-C and BIONi037-A were both from the European bank for Induced

Pluripotent Stem Cells) were differentiated to microglia as previously described [94]. In brief, 3 x 10^6

iPSCs were seeded into an Aggrewell 800 well (STEMCELL Technologies) to form embryoid bodies

(EBs), in mTeSR1 and fed daily with medium plus 50 ng/ml BMP4 (Miltenyi Biotec), 50 ng/ml VEGF

(Miltenyi Biotec), and 20 ng/ml SCF (R&D Systems). Four-day EBs were then differentiated in 6-well

plates (15 EBs/well) in X-VIVO15 (Lonza) supplemented with 100 ng/ml M-CSF (Miltenyi Biotec), 25

ng/ml IL-3 (Miltenyi Biotec), 2 mM Glutamax (Invitrogen Life Technologies), and 0.055 mM beta-

mercaptoethanol (Thermo Fisher Scientific), with fresh medium added weekly. Microglial precursors

emerging in the supernatant after approximately 1 month were collected and isolated through a 40

um cell strainer and plated in N2B27 media supplemented with 100 ng/ml M-CSF, 25 ng/ml interleukin

34 (IL-34) for differentiation.

Quantitative PCR experiment:

cDNA synthesis was performed using the miScript II RT Kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. In brief, 200 ng total RNA was used for cDNA preparation. HiFlex Buffer was

used so that the cDNA could be used for both mRNA and microRNA quantitative PCR (qPCR). A

microRNA-specific forward primer and a universal reverse primer were used for quantification. The

U6 small nuclear RNA gene was employed as an internal control. For mRNA quantification, gene-

specific forward and reverse primers were used. The relative amounts of mRNA were normalized

against GAPDH. The fold change for each microRNA and mRNA was calculated using the 2−ΔΔCt

method[18]. The Light Cycler® 480 Real-Time PCR System (Roche, Germany) was used to perform qPCR.

Caspase 1 activation assay:

Caspase-Glo® 1 Inflammasome Assay (Promega, Germany) was used to detect caspase 1 activation as

described in the manufacturer's protocol. In brief, microglia, treated with ASO/inhibitor or primed

with LPS and stimulated with ATP, were seeded on opaque, flat-bottom 96-well plates (Cellstar,

Germany) at 50,000 per well in 100 ul DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 20% L929 conditioned

medium and 100 U ml–1 penicillin–streptomycin. 100 ul of Caspase-Glo buffer was mixed with cell

medium. Plates were incubated at room temperature for 1 h. Luminogenic caspase activity was

measured using a FLUOstar Omega plate reader (BMG Labtech).

Microglia phagocytosis assay:

The microglia phagocytosis assay was performed as described[19]. Primary microglia cultures were

plated at a density of 18 x 10^4 in poly-D-lysine-coated 24-well plates in DMEM supplemented with 10%

FBS, 20% L929 conditioned medium and 100 U ml–1 penicillin–streptomycin. Immortalized microglia

(IMG) cultures were plated at a density 5 x 10^3 in poly-D-lysine-coated 24-well plates in DMEM

supplemented with 10% FBS, 1X Glutamine (Millipore), and 100 U ml–1 penicillin–streptomycin. To

evaluate phagocytosis, treated microglia were incubated with fluorescent latex beads of 1 μm

diameter (green, fluorescent 496/519; Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 h at 37°C, rinsed, and fixed with 4%

formaldehyde. Cells were stained using the Iba1 (CD68) antibody (1:500; Wako) and DAPI. A confocal

microscope was used for imaging at a low magnification (10x). ImageJ was used to quantify fluorescent

latex beads. Region of interests (ROIs) were selected as microglial cells outlined with the Iba1

immunostaining to quantify beads. An intracellular section of the cell was selected to assure

engulfment of latex beads by microglia. Similar acquisition parameters were used for each individual

experiment. The results were expressed as the percentage of phagocytic index (# of total engulfed

beads in an image / # of total cells identified in an image; n = 13 independent experiments).

Synaptic pruning in primary microglia neural co-culture:

Primary cortical neurons were seeded at a density of 130,000 on poly-D-lysine-coated 13 mm

coverslips in 24-well plates in Neurobasal medium supplemented with B-27. Primary cortical neurons

were used for experiments at DIV10-12. Treated primary microglia cultures were harvested from T-75

flasks and 4000 cells were seeded to each neural culture well. Plates were kept at 37°C for three days.

On the   third day, the cells were washed and fixed with 4% PFA (Sigma Aldrich, Germany) and 100

mM NH4Cl (Merck, Germany) respectively, at room temperature for 30 minutes. Next, the cells were

washed in permeabilization and blocking buffer (0.1% Triton-X [Merck, Germany] + 3% bovine serum

albumin (BSA) [AppliChem GmbH, Germany]) on a shaker. The cells were then incubated with primary

antibodies for 1 hour at room temperature. The antibodies used included synaptophysin 1 (guinea pig,

SySy), PSD-95 (rabbit, Cell Signaling,), and Iba1 (goat, Abcam). After incubation, the cells were washed

in PBS and then incubated with a secondary antibody for 1 hour at room temperature. As secondary

antibodies, Cy3 (donkey, anti- guinea pig, Jackson Imm.), Abberrior STAR 635p (goat, anti-rabbit) were

used. Mowiol (Merck, Germany) and DAPI were used as a mounting medium. Images were taken with

a multicolor confocal STED microscope (Abberior Instruments GmbH, Göttingen, Germany). Analysis

of colocalization of pre- and post-synaptic markers were performed using SynQuant plugins in Fiji (v

2.0.0).

Dendritic spine analysis:

As described above, primary cortical neurons and primary microglia were co-cultured and fixed with 4%PFA. Dendritic spines were labeled as described [95]. In brief, the cells were aspirated and 2-3 crystals of Dil stain (Life Technologies-Molecular Probes) were added to each culture well and incubated on a shaker for 10 minutes at room temperature. Cells were washed with PBS until no crystals were visible and incubated overnight at room temperature. On the following day, the cells were washed and mounted with Mowiol. For high-magnification images, a multicolor confocal STED microscope with a 60× oil objective was used. Spine density and total spine length were measured by using ImageJ.

Protein extraction of primary microglia:

Primary microglia cell lysates were used to detect ZBP1 in RIPA fractions. Primary microglia were seeded in a 6-well plate at a density of 1×10^6 in each well. Cells were collected in a RIPA buffer supplemented with 1 x protease inhibitor. Samples were kept on ice for 15 minutes and vortexed every 5 minutes and then centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C before supernatants were transferred to a new tube and stored at –20°C. The protein concentration was measured using a BCA assay.

Immunoblot analysis:

For standard immunoblot analysis, 20 ug of samples were mixed with 1× Laemmli buffer (Sigma, Germany), heated for 5 min at 95°C and loaded onto 4–15% Mini-PROTEAN® TGX™ Precast Protein Gels (Bio-Rad, Germany). Proteins were transferred on nitrocellulose membranes and membranes were blocked with 5% BSA in PBS-Tween. Membranes were incubated with primary antibodies in 5% BSA in PBS-Tween. Fluorescent-tagged secondary antibodies (LI-COR) were used for visualization of proteins. Imaging was performed using a LI-COR ODYSSEY. HSP-70, GAPDH were used as a loading and run on the same gel.

Treatment of microglia:

Microglia activation by LPS was used as a positive control. For this, microglia cells were first primed with 100 ng/ml ultrapure LPS (E. coli 0111:B4, Invivogen) and then incubated at 37°C. After this, 5 mM ATP were added to the culture and incubated for 30 minutes. Caspase 1 assay and phagocytosis assay were performed from these cultures. For immunoblot, cell lysate was prepared. For miR99b-5p-related analysis, microglia were either treated for two days with miR99b-5p inhibitor/negative control or ASOs in T-75 after first harvesting or after harvesting cells were seeded in a 24-well culture plate.

Luciferase assay:

Seed sequences of miR-99b-5p and pairing 3'UTR sequences of Zbp1 were generated with TargetScan. Cloned 3'UTR sequence of Zbp1 and scrambles UTR were purchased from Gene Copoeia (https://www.genecopoeia.com/product/mirna-target-clones/mirna-targets/). UTR was cloned downstream to firefly luciferase of pEZX-MT06 Dual-Luciferase miTarget™ vector. The pEZX-MT06-scrambled UTR or pEZX-MT06-Zbp1 3'UTR construct and miR99b-5p mimic or negative control were co-transfected into HEK293-T cells cultured in 24-well plates using EndoFectin™ Max Transfection Reagents (Gene Copoeia) according to the manufacturer's protocol. 48 hours after transfection, Firefly and Renilla luciferase activities were measured using a Luc-Pair™ Duo-Luciferase HS Assay Kit (for high sensitivity) (GeneCopoeia). Firefly luciferase activity and Renilla luciferase activity were normalized. The mean of luciferase activity and of Firefly/Renilla was considered for the analysis.

Statistical analysis:

Unless otherwise noted, statistical analysis was carried out with GraphPad Prism software version 8.0. Statistical measurement is shown as mean $\pm$ SD. Each n represents a biological sample. Either a two-tailed unpaired t-test or a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test were applied to analyze the data. Enriched gene ontology and pathway analysis was performed using Fisher's exact test followed by a Benjamini-Hochberg correction.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by the following grants to AF: The DFG (*Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft*) priority program 1738, SFB1286, the EPIFUS project, Germany's Excellence Strategy - EXC 2067/1 390729940. FS was supported by the GoBIO project miRassay. Urs Heilbronner is supported by the European Union's Horizon 2020 Research and Innovation Programme (PSY-PGx, grant agreement No 945151) and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation, project number 514201724). LE is supported by the Studienstiftung des Deutschen Volkes and the International Max-Planck Research School for The Mechanisms of Mental Function and Dysfunction (IMPRS-MMFD). DKV is supported by grants from the Chan Zuckerberg Initiative Neurodegenerative's Challenge Network (2020-221779(5022) & 2021-235147). TS was supported by grants from the *Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft* (DFG; SCHU 1603/4-1, 5-1, 7-1), the German Ministry of

Education and Research (BMBF; 01EE1404H), and the Dr. Lisa Oehler Foundation (Kassel, Germany).

PF was supported by a grant from the DFG (DFG; FA 241/16-1)

Author contributions: L.K., F.S., and A.F. designed research; L.K., M.R.I., J.Z., J.S., R.P., S.B., L.E., A.B.,

D.K.V., I.D., F.O., and A.F. performed research; U.H., A.B., M.B., F.S., M.O.K., E.C.S., M.S., E.Z.R., G.J.,

T.G.S., P.F. recruited and phenotyped patients; L.K., M.R.I., D.M.K., A.M., T.P., and A.F. analyzed data;

and L.K., F.S., and A.F. wrote the paper with input from other co-authors.

Figure legends

Figure 1: Identification of microRNAs that play a role in the pathogenesis of SZ. a. Experimental

scheme. **b.** Violin plots showing the results of WGCNA analysis. Depicted is the comparison of the

eigenexpression in of the 3 co-expression modules in SZ patients and in control, showing a decrease

in SZ patients. **c.** Violin plots showing the results of WGCNA analysis. The eigenexpression of the 5 co-

expression modules was higher in SZ patients than in controls (for b & c: unpaired t test; **P < 0.01,

***P < 0.001; ****P < 0.0001, a P value < 0.01 was considered as significant). **d.** Heat map showing

the correlation of the eigenexpression of the co-expression modules shown in (a) and (b) with the

corresponding clinical phenotypes. The numbers in each rectangle represent the correlation (upper

number) and the corresponding p-value (lower number). A P value < 0.01 was considered as

significant. **e.** Volcano plot depicting the results of the differential expression analysis when comparing

SZ patients and controls shown in (a). **f.** Volcano plot demonstrating the results of the differential

expression when comparing postmortem brain samples from SZ patients (n=13) and controls (n=17).

g. Venn diagram comparing the microRNAs detected in blood samples when performing differential

expression analysis (Blood DESEQ2_DE), the microRNAs of the ME_Turquoise and ME_Pink co-

expression modules and the microRNAs differentially expressed when comparing postmortem brain

tissue (brain_DE). miR-99b-5p is the only microRNA decreased in all comparisons. **h.** Heat map

showing the correlation of miR-99b-5p expression levels to the clinical phenotypes for the individuals

as analyzed in (a). The numbers in each rectangle represent the correlation (upper number) and the

corresponding p-value (lower number).

Figure 2: Decreasing miR-99b-5p levels in the PFC of mice leads to SZ-like phenotypes and increases

the expression of genes linked to microglia activation. a. Left panel: Experimental design. Right panel:

Bar graph showing qPCR results for miR-99b-5p in tissue obtained from the PCF of mice 5 or 10 days

after injection of anti-miR-99b or sc-control oligonucleotides. (n=4/group; ****P < 0.0001, unpaired t

test). **b**. Bar graph showing the distance traveled in the open field test of mice injected to the PFC with

either anti-miR-99b or sc-control oligonucleotides (n=10/group; unpaired t test. **c.** Bar graph showing

the time spent in the center of the open field in mice injected to the PFC with either anti-miR-99b or

sc-control oligonucleotides (n=10/group; *P < 0.05; unpaired t test). **d.** Bar graph showing the time

spent in the open arms when an elevated plus maze test was performed in mice injected to the PFC

with either anti-miR-99b or sc-control oligonucleotides (n=10/group; *P < 0.05; unpaired t test). **e.** Bar

graph showing the results of a PPI experiment of mice injected with either anti-miR-99b or sc-control

oligonucleotides. PPI is impaired in anti-miR-99b injected mice (n=10/group) unpaired t test; *P < 0.05;

P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001; ****P < 0.0001). **f. Bar graph showing the basic startle response among

groups. **g.** Volcano plot showing the differentially expressed genes (upregulated in red, downregulated

in blue) when RNA-seq was performed from the PFC of mice injected with either anti-miR-99b or sc-

control oligonucleotides. Genes with log2-fold change ± 0.5 and adjusted p value < 0.05 are

highlighted. **h.** GO-term analysis of the upregulated genes found in (e). **i.** Heat maps showing the

enrichment of the upregulated genes as determined in (e) in various datasets. Left panel shows that

the upregulated genes are enriched for microglia-specific genes, while the downregulated genes are

enriched for neuron-specific genes. The right panel shows that the upregulated genes are over-

represented in 3 different databases for immune function-related genes. **j.** Bar graph showing the

qPCR results of the *Il1ß*, *Tgfb1* and *Tnfa* genes in FACS-sorted microglia collected from the PFC of mice

injected with anti-miR-99b or sc-control oligonucleotides. (n=4 or 5/group; unpaired t test; *P < 0.05).

Error bars indicate SD.

Figure 3: Decreasing miR-99b-5p levels in microglia increases phagocytosis and reduces synapse

number in cortical neurons a. Left panel: Experimental design. **b.** Volcano plot showing differential

expressed genes when comparing microglia treated with anti-miR-99b or sc-control LNAs. Genes with

statistical significance are highlighted. **c.** Bar chart showing the top GO terms represented by the up

regulated genes shown in (b). **d.** Bar charts showing qPCR results for *Tgfb1*, *Il1ß* and *Tnfa* comparing

microglia treated with anti-miR-99b or sc-control LNAs (n=6/group; unpaired t test; *P < 0.05;

P < 0.01, ****P < 0.0001). **e. Bar chart showing the results of a phagocytosis assay performed in

microglia treated with anti-miR-99b in comparison to cells treated with sc-control LNAs. The

percentage of phagocytic index represents (# of total engulfed beads in an image / # of total cells

identified in an image; n = 13 independent experiments; unpaired t test; **P < 0.01). **f.** Experimental

scheme illustrating the co-culture experiment. **g.** Heat map showing the differentially expressed genes

from the experiment described in (f). **h.** Plot showing the results of a GO term analysis for the up- and

downregulated genes displayed in (g). **i.** Left panel: Representative image showing DIL dye staining to

visualize dendritic spines in co-cultures as illustrated in (f). Scale bar 5 µm. Right panel: Bar chart

showing the statistical quantification of the data depicted in (i). Each dot represents a spine density

for a dendritic segment. *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001; ****P < 0.0001). Error bars indicate SD.

Figure 4: miR-99b-5p regulates neuroinflammatory phenotypes via *Zbp1* a. Venn diagram comparing

the genes upregulated in the PFC of mice and in primary microglia when injected or treated with anti-

miR99b vs. sc-control LNAs, respectively. The data is further compared to the identified 13 miR-99b-

5p target mRNAs detected in the PFC dataset. The left panel shows the gene names of the 13 miR-

99b-5p target mRNAs. Red indicates miR-99b-5p targets upregulated in the PCF and in primary

microglia upon anti-miR-99b treatment. **b.** Bar graph showing the results of the luciferase assay. In

comparison to sc-control LNAs, administration of miR-99b-5p mimic decreases luciferase activity when

cells express the Zbp1-3'UTR. This effect is not observed when a control 3'UTR that does not bind miR-

99b-5p is used. (n=6/group). The upper right panel shows the predicted binding of miR-99b-5p to the

3'UTR of *Zbp1*. **c.** Left panel: Representative immunoblot image showing ZBP1 levels in microglia

treated with sc-control LNAs or anti-miR-99b. HSP70 was used as a loading control. Right panel: Bar

graph showing the quantification of the data depicted in the left panel. n=4/group. **d.** Bar graph

showing quantification of caspase activity in primary microglia treated with sc-control LNAs or anti-

miR-99b (n=6/group). **e.** Bar graph showing quantification of caspase activity in protein lysates

isolated from the PFC of mice injected with anti-miR-99b or sc-control (n=4/group). **f.** Bar graph

showing quantification of caspase activity in primary microglia treated with either sc-control LNAs,

anti-miR-99b or anti-miR-99b together with *Zbp1*-ASOs. (n=6/group). **g.** Bar graph showing qPCR

results for *Il1ß* in primary microglia treated with either sc-control LNAs, anti-miR-99b or anti-miR-99b

together with *Zbp1*-ASOs (n=6/group). **h.** Bar graph showing the results of a phagocytosis assay

performed in primary microglia treated with either sc-control LNAs, anti-miR-99b or anti-miR-99b

together with *Zbp1*-ASOs (n=16 independent experiments). **i.** Bar graph showing quantification of

caspase activity in human iPSC-derived microglia treated with either sc-control LNAs, anti-miR-99b or

anti-miR-99b together with *Zbp1*-ASOs (n=13-16 samples/group). **j.** Bar graph showing qPCR results

for IL1ß in human iPSC-derived microglia treated with either sc-control LNAs, anti-miR-99b or anti-

miR-99b together with *Zbp1*-ASOs (n=6/group). **k.** Bar graph showing the results of a phagocytosis

assay performed in human iPSC-derived microglia treated with either sc-control LNAs, anti-miR-99b

or anti-miR-99b together with *Zbp1*-ASOs. The percentage of phagocytic index represent (# of total

engulfed beads in an image / # of total cells identified in an image; n = 9 independent experiments.

Error bars indicate SD; unpaired t test; *P < 0.05; **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001; ****P < 0.0001). RI: relative

immunofluorescent,

References

[1]   R. C. Kessler, W. T. Chiu, O. Demler, K. R. Merikangas, and E. E. Walters, "Prevalence, severity, and comorbidity of 12-month DSM-IV disorders in the National Comorbidity Survey Replication," *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry,* vol. 62, no. 617-627, 2005.

[2]   K. Jaeschke, F. Hanna, S. Ali, N. Chowdhary, T. Dua, and F. Charlson, "Global estimates of service coverage for severe mental disorders: findings from the WHO Mental Health Atlas 2017," *Ment Health (Camb),* vol. 21, no. 8, p. e27, 2021.

[3]   E. J. Nestler, C. J. Peña, M. Kundakovic, A. Mitchell, and S. Akbarian, "Epigenetic Basis of Mental Illness.," *Neuroscientist,* vol. 8, no. Epub ahead of print], 2015.

[4]   I. Giegling *et al.*, "Genetics of schizophrenia: A consensus paper of the WFSBP Task Force on Genetics.," *World J Biol Psychiatry.,* vol. 18, no. 7, pp. 492-505, 2017.

[5]   N. Robinson and S. E. Bergen, "Environmental Risk Factors for Schizophrenia and Bipolar Disorder and Their Relationship to Genetic Risk: Current Knowledge and Future Directions," *Front Genet.,* vol. 28, no. 12, p. 686666, 2021.

[6]   M. T. Samara *et al.*, "Efficacy, Acceptability, and Tolerability of Antipsychotics in Treatment-Resistant Schizophrenia: A Network Meta-analysis.," *JAMA Psychiatry,* vol. 73, no. 3, pp. 199-210, 2016.

[7]   D. L. Spark, A. Fornito, C. J. Langmead, and G. D. Stewart, "Beyond antipsychotics: a twenty-first century update for preclinical development of schizophrenia therapeutics," *Transl Psychiatry.,* vol. 7, no. 12, p. 147, 2022.

[8]   I. Ezkurdia *et al.*, "Multiple evidence strands suggest that there may be as few as 19,000 human protein-coding genes.," *Hum Mol Genet.,* vol. 23, no. 22, pp. 5866-5878, 2014.

[9]   T. R. Damase, R. Sukhovershin, C. Boada, F. Taraballi, R. I. Pettigrew, and J. P. Cooke, "The Limitless Future of RNA Therapeutics.," *Front Bioeng Biotechnol.,* vol. 18, no. 9, p. 628137, 2021.

[10]   R. Feng, S. Patil, X. Zhao, Z. Miao, and A. Qian, "RNA Therapeutics - Research and Clinical Advancements," *Front Mol Biosci.,* vol. 22, no. 8, p. 710738, 2021.

[11]   R. Rupaimoole and F. Slack, J. , "MicroRNA therapeutics: towards a new era for the management of cancer and other diseases.," *Nat Rev Drug Discov.,* vol. 16, no. 3, pp. 203-222, 2017.

[12]   A. M. Gurtan and P. A. Sharp, "The Role of miRNAs in Regulating Gene Expression Networks.," *J Mol Biol,* vol. pii, no. S0022-2836(13)00154-X., p. Epub ahead of print, 2013.

[13]   C. Bär *et al.*, "Non-coding RNAs: update on mechanisms and therapeutic targets from the ESC Working Groups of Myocardial Function and Cellular Biology of the Heart.," *Cardiovasc Res.,* vol. 116, no. 11, pp. 1805-1819, 2020.

[14]   A. Fischer, "Epigenetic memory: the Lamarckian brain.," *EMBO J,* vol. 33, no. 9, pp. 945-967, 2014.

[15]   H. C. Martins and G. Schratt, "MicroRNA-dependent control of neuroplasticity in affective disorders.," *Transl Psychiatry.,* vol. 11, no. 1, p. 263, 2021.

[16]   K. Sakamoto and J. J. Crowley, "A comprehensive review of the genetic and biological evidence supports a role for MicroRNA-137 in the etiology of schizophrenia," *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet.,* vol. 177, no. 2, pp. 242-256, 2017.

[17] S. Sargazi *et al.*, "Functional Variants of miR-143 Are Associated with Schizophrenia
Susceptibility: A Preliminary Population-Based Study and Bioinformatics Analysis.,"
Biochem Genet., vol. 60, no. 3, pp. 868-881, 2022.

[18] B. Roy, Y. Yoshino, L. Allen, K. Prall, G. Schell, and Y. Dwivedi, "Exploiting Circulating
MicroRNAs as Biomarkers in Psychiatric Disorders.," *Molecular diagnosis & therapy,*
vol. 24, no. 3, pp. 279-298, 2020.

[19] S. Ghafouri-Fard, R. Eghtedarian, M. Taheri, A. Beatrix Brühl, D. Sadeghi-Bahmani, and
S. A. Brand, "Review on the Expression Pattern of Non-coding RNAs in Patients With
Schizophrenia: With a Special Focus on Peripheral Blood as a Source of Expression
Analysis.," *Front Psychiatry.,* vol. 18, no. 12, p. 640463, 2021.

[20] E. E. Tsermpini, C. I. Kalogirou, G. C. Kyriakopoulos, G. P. Patrinos, and C. Stathopoulos,
"miRNAs as potential diagnostic biomarkers and pharmacogenomic indicators in
psychiatric disorders.," *Pharmacogenomics J.,* vol. 22, no. 4, pp. 211-222, 2022.

[21] W. Liang *et al.*, "Loss of schizophrenia-related miR-501-3p in mice impairs sociability
and memory by enhancing mGluR5-mediated glutamatergic transmission.," *Sci Adv,*
vol. 8, no. 33, p. eabn7357, 2022.

[22] A. Zampetaki, P. Willeit, I. Drozdov, S. Kiechl, and M. Mayr, "Profiling of circulating
microRNAs: from single biomarkers to re-wired networks.," *Cardiovascular research,*
vol. 93, no. 4, pp. 555–562., 2012.

[23] C. E. Condrat *et al.*, "miRNAs as Biomarkers in Disease: Latest Findings Regarding Their
Role in Diagnosis and Prognosis.," *Cells,* vol. 9, no. 2, p. 276, 2020.

[24] A. M. Jose, "Movement of regulatory RNA between animal cells.," *Genesis,* vol. 53, no.
7, pp. 395-416, 2015.

[25] R. Bayraktar, K. Van Roosbroeck, and G. A. Calin, "Cell-to-cell communication:
microRNAs as hormones," *Mol Oncol.,* vol. 11, no. 12, pp. 1673-1686., 2017.

[26] M. Budde *et al.*, "A longitudinal approach to biological psychiatric research: The
PsyCourse study.," *Am J Med Genet B Neuropsychiatr Genet.,* vol. 180, no. 2, pp. 89-
102, 2018.

[27] T. Kuriakose and T. D. Kanneganti, "ZBP1: Innate Sensor Regulating Cell Death and
Inflammation.," *Trends Immunol.,* vol. 39, no. 2, pp. 123-134, 2018.

[28] E. A. Ermakov, M. M. Melamud, V. N. Buneva, and S. A. Ivanova, "Immune System
Abnormalities in Schizophrenia: An Integrative View and Translational Perspectives.,"
Front Psychiatry., vol. 25, no. 13, p. 880568, 2022.

[29] S. Liu *et al.*, "Diagnostic value of blood-derived microRNAs for schizophrenia: results
of a meta-analysis and validation.," *Scientific reports,* vol. 7, no. 1, p. 15328, 2017.

[30] A. M. Achim, M. Maziade, E. Raymond, D. Olivier, C. Mérette, and M. A. Roy, "How
prevalent are anxiety disorders in schizophrenia? A meta-analysis and critical review
on a significant association.," *Schizophr Bull.,* vol. 37, no. 4, pp. 811-821, 2011.

[31] N. R. Swerdlow, D. L. Braff, N. Taaid, and M. A. Geyer, "Assessing the validity of an
animal model of deficient sensorimotor gating in schizophrenic patients," *Arch Gen
Psychiatry,* vol. 51, no. 2, pp. 139-154, 1994.

[32] G. A. Light and D. L. Braff, "Human and animal studies of schizophrenia-related gating
deficits.," *Curr Psychiatry Rep.,* vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 31-40, 1999.

[33] M. van den Buuse, "Modeling the positive symptoms of schizophrenia in genetically
modified mice: pharmacology and methodology aspects.," *Schizophr Bull.,* vol. 36, no.
2, pp. 246-270, 2010.

[34] R. Rahimian, M. Wakid, L. A. O'Leary, and N. Mechawar, "The emerging tale of
microglia in psychiatric disorders.," *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.,* vol. 131, pp. 1-29, 2021.
[35] K. Borst, A. A. Dumas, and M. Prinz, "Microglia: Immune and non-immune functions,"
Immunity., vol. 54, no. 10, pp. 2194-2208, 2021.
[36] C. M. Sellgren *et al.,* "Increased synapse elimination by microglia in schizophrenia
patient-derived models of synaptic pruning.," *Nat Neurosci.,* vol. 22, no. 3, p. 374,
2019.
[37] N. Müller, E. Weidinger, B. Leitner, and M. J. Schwarz, "The role of inflammation in
schizophrenia.," *Front Neurosci.,* vol. 21, no. 9, p. 372, 2015.
[38] H. C. van Mierlo, A. Schot, M. P. M. Boks, and L. D. de Witte, "The association between
schizophrenia and the immune system: Review of the evidence from unbiased 'omic-
studies'." *Schizophr Res.,* vol. 217, no. 114-123, 2020.
[39] R. P. Sharma, C. Rosen, J. K. Melbourne, B. Feiner, and K. A. Chase, "2016,"
Neuroimmunomodulation, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 224-229.
[40] H. I. Muendlein *et al.,* "ZBP1 promotes LPS-induced cell death and IL-1β release via
RHIM-mediated interactions with RIPK1," *Nat Commun.,* vol. 12, no. 1, p. 86, 2021.
[41] R. G. Shao *et al.,* "Necrostatin-1 attenuates Caspase-1-dependent pyroptosis induced
by the RIPK1/ZBP1 pathway in ventilator-induced lung injury," *Cytokine,* vol. 157, p.
155950, 2022.
[42] R. de Reuver *et al.,* "ADAR1 prevents autoinflammation by suppressing spontaneous
ZBP1 activation," *Nature,* vol. 607, no. 7920, pp. 784-789, 2022.
[43] P. F. Buckley, "Neuroinflammation and Schizophrenia," *Curr Psychiatry Rep,* vol. 21,
no. 8, p. 72, 2019.
[44] A. C. Rodrigues-Neves, A. F. Ambrósio, and C. A. Gomes, "Microglia sequelae: brain
signature of innate immunity in schizophrenia.," *Transl Psychiatry.,* vol. 12, no. 1, p.
493, 2022.
[45] C. Barbato *et al.,* "Cognitive Decline and Modulation of Alzheimer's Disease-Related
Genes After Inhibition of MicroRNA-101 in Mouse Hippocampal Neurons," *Molecular
Neurobiology,* vol. 57, no. 7, pp. 3183-3194, 2020.
[46] M. Mundalil Vasu *et al.,* "Serum microRNA profiles in children with autism.," *Molecular
autism,* vol. 5, no. 40, pp. https://doi.org/10.1186/2040-2392-5-40, 2014.
[47] F. Zadehbagheri, E. Hosseini, Z. Bagheri-Hosseinabadi, H. M. Rekabdarkolaee, and I.
Sadeghi, "Profiling of miRNAs in serum of children with attention-deficit hyperactivity
disorder shows significant alterations," *Journal of psychiatric research,* vol. 109, pp.
185-192, 2019.
[48] H. Zhu and S. W. Leung, "MicroRNA biomarkers of type 2 diabetes: evidence synthesis
from meta-analyses and pathway modelling," *Diabetologia,* vol. 66, no. 2, pp. 288-299,
2023.
[49] S. Y. Zahari Sham *et al.,* "Circulating miRNAs in Type 2 Diabetic Patients with and
without Albuminuria in Malaysia.," *Kidney & blood pressure research,* vol. 47, no. 2,
pp. 81-93, 2022.
[50] F. Moshiri *et al.,* "Circulating miR-106b-3p, miR-101-3p and miR-1246 as diagnostic
biomarkers of hepatocellular carcinoma," *Oncotarget,* vol. 9, no. 20, pp. 15350-15364,
2018.
[51] Y. Zhang, P. Zhang, and C. Deng, "miR-378a-5p regulates CAMKK2/AMPK pathway to
contribute to cerebral ischemia/reperfusion injury-induced neuronal apoptosis.,"
Folia histochemica et cytobiologica, vol. 59, no. 1, pp. 57-65, 2021.

[52] J. M. Biselli *et al.*, "Differential microRNA expression profile in blood of children with
Down syndrome suggests a role in immunological dysfunction.," *Human cell,* vol. 35,
no. 2, pp. 639-648, 2022.
[53] Z. Dong *et al.*, "Profiling of Serum Exosome MiRNA Reveals the Potential of a MiRNA
Panel as Diagnostic Biomarker for Alzheimer's Disease.," *Molecular Neurobiology,* vol.
58, no. 7, pp. 3084-3094, 2021.
[54] S. D. Chen *et al.*, "A preliminary analysis of microRNA-21 expression alteration after
antipsychotic treatment in patients with schizophrenia," *Psychiatry research,* vol. 244,
pp. 324-332, 2016.
[55] E. Maffioletti *et al.*, "Peripheral whole blood microRNA alterations in major depression
and bipolar disorder.," *Journal of affective disorders,* vol. 200, pp. 250-258, 2016.
[56] J. Vykoukal *et al.*, "Contributions of Circulating microRNAs for Early Detection of Lung
Cancer," *Cancers,* vol. 14, no. 17, p. 4221, 2022.
[57] Z. Qin, X. Han, J. Ran, S. Guo, and L. Lv, "Exercise-Mediated Alteration of miR-192-5p
Is Associated with Cognitive Improvement in Alzheimer's Disease,"
Neuroimmunomodulation, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 36-43, 2022.
[58] Y. Yoshino, B. Roy, and Y. Dwivedi, "Differential and unique patterns of synaptic miRNA
expression in dorsolateral prefrontal cortex of depressed subjects.,"
Neuropsychopharmacology, vol. 46, no. 5, pp. 900-910, 2021.
[59] C. Z. Tang, J. T. Yang, Q. H. Liu, Y. R. Wang, and W. S. Wang, "Up-regulated miR-192-
5p expression rescues cognitive impairment and restores neural function in mice with
depression via the Fbln2-mediated TGF-β1 signaling pathway," *FASEB J,* vol. 33, no. 1,
pp. 606-618, 2019.
[60] S. Van der Auwera *et al.*, "Association of childhood traumatization and
neuropsychiatric outcomes with altered plasma micro RNA-levels.,"
Neuropsychopharmacology, vol. 44, no. 12, pp. 2030-2037, 2019.
[61] Z. X. Huang, Y. Chen, H. R. Guo, and G. F. Chen, "Systematic Review and Bioinformatic
Analysis of microRNA Expression in Autism Spectrum Disorder Identifies Pathways
Associated With Cancer, Metabolism, Cell Signaling, and Cell Adhesion," *Frontiers in
Psychiatry,* vol. 12, p. 630876, 2021.
[62] E. Banach, A. Szczepankiewicz, L. Kaczmarek, T. Jaworski, and J. Urban-Ciećko,
"Dysregulation of miRNAs Levels in Glycogen Synthase Kinase-3β Overexpressing Mice
and the Role of miR-221-5p in Synaptic Function," *Neuroscience,* vol. 490, no. 10, pp.
287-295, 2022.
[63] S. van Heukelum *et al.*, "Where is Cingulate Cortex? A Cross-Species View.," *Trends
Neurosci.,* vol. 43, no. 5, pp. 285-299, 2020.
[64] D. Feifel and P. D. Shilling, "Promise and pitfalls of animal models of schizophrenia.,"
Psychiatry Rep, vol. 12, pp. 327-334, 2010.
[65] T. A. Bayer, R. Buslei, L. Havas, and P. Falkai, "Evidence for activation of microglia in
patients with psychiatric illnesses," *Neurosci Lett.,* vol. 271, no. 2, pp. 126-128, 1999.
[66] M. E. Benros, P. R. Nielsen, M. Nordentoft, W. W. Eaton, S. O. Dalton, and P. B.
Mortensen, "Autoimmune diseases and severe infections as risk factors for
schizophrenia: a
30-year population-based register study," *Am J Psychiatry,* vol. 168, no. 1303-1310, 2011.
[67] B. N. van Berckel, M. G. Bossong, R. Boellaard, R. Kloet, A. Schuitemaker, and E.
Caspers, "Microglia activation in recent-onset schizophrenia: a quantitative (R)-

[11 C]PK11195 positron emission tomography study.," *Biol Psychiatry.,* vol. 64, pp. 820-822, 2008.

[68] J. Ottoy, L. De Picker, J. Verhaeghe, S. Deleye, L. Wyffels, and L. Kosten, "(18)F-PBR111 PET imaging in healthy controls and schizophrenia: test-retest reproducibility and quantification of neuroinflammation. J Nucl Med. 2018;59:1267–74.," *J Nucl Med.,* vol. 59, pp. 1267-1274, 2018.

[69] G. Juckel, M. P. Manitz, M. Brune, A. Friebe, M. T. Heneka, and R. J. Wolf, "icroglial activation in a neuroinflammational animal model of schizophrenia–a pilot study," *Schizophr Res.,* vol. 131, pp. 96-100, 2011.

[70] H. W. Shelton, S. P. Gabbita, W. D. Gill, K. C. Burgess, W. S. Whicker, and R. W. Brown, "he effects of a novel inhibitor of tumor necrosis factor (TNF) alpha on prepulse inhibition and microglial activation in two distinct rodent models of schizophrenia.," *Behav Brain Res,* vol. 406, p. 113229, 2021.

[71] L. Wang *et al.*, "Targeted delivery of miR-99b reprograms tumor-associated macrophage phenotype leading to tumor regression.," *J Immunother Cancer,* vol. 8, no. 2, p.:e000517, 2020.

[72] Y. Singh *et al.*, "Mycobacterium tuberculosis controls microRNA-99b (miR-99b) expression in infected murine dendritic cells to modulate host immunity.," *J Biol Chem.,* vol. 288, no. 7, pp. 5056-5061, 2013.

[73] S. Momtazmanesh, A. Zare-Shahabadi, and N. Rezaei, "Cytokine Alterations in Schizophrenia: An Updated Review," *Front Psychiatry.,* vol. 10, no. 892, p. doi: 10.3389/, 2019.

[74] A. Vilalta and G. C. Brown, "Neurophagy, the phagocytosis of live neurons and synapses by glia, contributes to brain development and disease.," *FEBS J.,* vol. 285, no. 19, pp. 3566-3575, 2018.

[75] D. Inta, U. E. Lang, S. Borgwardt, A. Meyer-Lindenberg, and P. Gass, "Microglia Activation and Schizophrenia: Lessons From the Effects of Minocycline on Postnatal Neurogenesis, Neuronal Survival and Synaptic Pruning.," *Schizophr Bull.,* vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 493-496, 2017.

[76] M. Germann, S. G. Brederoo, and I. E. C. Sommer, "Abnormal synaptic pruning during adolescence underlying the development of psychotic disorders.," *Curr Opin Psychiatry,* vol. 34, no. 3, pp. 222-227, 2021.

[77] A. Takaoka *et al.*, "DAI (DLM-1/ZBP1) is a cytosolic DNA sensor and an activator of innate immune response.," *Nature,* vol. 448, no. 7152, pp. 501-505, 2007.

[78] T. Kuriakose *et al.*, "ZBP1/DAI is an innate sensor of influenza virus triggering the NLRP3 inflammasome and programmed cell death pathways.," *Sci Immunol.,* vol. 1, no. 2, p. aag2045, 2016.

[79] S. Hong *et al.*, "omplement and microglia mediate early synapse loss in Alzheimer mouse models.," *Science,* vol. 352, no. 6286, pp. 712-716, 2016.

[80] M. T. Heneka *et al.*, "NLRP3 is activated in Alzheimer's disease and contributes to pathology in APP/PS1 mice," *Nature,* vol. 493, no. 7434, pp. 674-678, 2013.

[81] X. Ye *et al.*, "MicroRNAs 99b-5p/100-5p Regulated by Endoplasmic Reticulum Stress are Involved in Abeta-Induced Pathologies.," *Front Aging Neurosci.,* vol. 18, no. 7, p. 210, 2015.

[82] A. D. Hart, A. Wyttenbach, V. H. Perry, and J. L. Teeling, "Age related changes in microglial phenotype vary between CNS regions: grey versus white matter differences.," *Brain Behav Immun.,* vol. 26, no. 5, pp. 754-765, 2012.

| 1115 | [83] | P. Ayata *et al.*, "pigenetic regulation of brain region-specific microglia clearance activity.," *Nat Neurosci.,* vol. 21, no. 8, pp. 1049-1060, 2018. |

[83] P. Ayata *et al.*, "pigenetic regulation of brain region-specific microglia clearance
activity.," *Nat Neurosci.,* vol. 21, no. 8, pp. 1049-1060, 2018.

[84] M. Mustapic *et al.*, "Plasma Extracellular Vesicles Enriched for Neuronal Origin: A
Potential Window into Brain Pathologic Processes.," *Front Neurosci.,* vol. 11, no. 278,
p. doi: 10.3389/fnins.2017.00278., 2017.

[85] A. Kumar *et al.*, "Brain cell-derived exosomes in plasma serve as neurodegeneration
biomarkers in male cynomolgus monkeys self-administrating oxycodone,"
EBioMedicine, vol. 63, p. 103192, 2021.

[86] P. Langfelder and S. Horvath, "WGCNA: an R package for weighted correlation network
analysis.," *BMC Bioinformatics.,* vol. 29, no. 559, p. eCollection, 2008.

[87] P. Shannon *et al.*, "Cytoscape: a software environment for integrated models of
biomolecular interaction networks," (in eng), *Genome Research,* vol. 13, no. 11, pp.
2498-2504, 2003/11// 2003, doi: 10.1101/gr.1239303.

[88] G. Bindea *et al.*, "ClueGO: a Cytoscape plug-in to decipher functionally grouped gene
ontology and pathway annotation networks," *Bioinformatics,* vol. 25, no. 1, pp. 1091-
1093, 2009.

[89] A. T. McKenzie *et al.*, "Brain Cell Type Specific Gene Expression and Co-expression
Network Architectures," *Scientific reports,* vol. 8, no. 1, p. 8868, 2018.

[90] C. Ortutay and M. Vihinen, "Immunome: A reference set of genes and proteins for
systems biology of the human immune system.," *Cellular Immunology,* vol. 244, no. 2,
pp. 87-89, 2006.

[91] A. R. Abbas *et al.*, "Immune response in silico (IRIS): immune-specific genes identified
from a compendium of microarray expression data.," *Genes and immunity,* vol. 6, no.
4, pp. 319-331, 2005.

[92] M. R. Islam *et al.*, "A microRNA signature that correlates with cognition and is a target
against cognitive decline," (in eng), *EMBO molecular medicine,* vol. 13, no. 11, p.
e13659, 2021/11/08/ 2021, doi: 10.15252/emmm.202013659.

[93] C. B. Pantazis *et al.*, "A reference human induced pluripotent stem cell line for large-
scale collaborative studies.," *Cell stem cell,* vol. 29, no. 12, pp. 1685-1702, 2022.

[94] W. Haenseler *et al.*, "A Highly Efficient Human Pluripotent Stem Cell Microglia Model
Displays a Neuronal-Co-culture-Specific Expression Profile and Inflammatory
Response.," *Stem cell reports,* vol. 8, no. 6, pp. 1727-1742, 2017.

[95] M. Goldberg *et al.*, "Exercise as a model to identify microRNAs linked to human
cognition: A role for microRNA-409 and microRNA-501," *Translational Psychiatry,* vol.
11, no. 1, p. 514, 2021.

1150

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4