TDP-43 toxic gain of function links ALS, FTD and Alzheimer's Disease through splicing dysregulation

Welmoed van Zuiden[1,2]*, Thea D Meimoun[1,2]*, Chen Bar[1,2], Aviad Siany[1,2], Lihi Moshe[1,2], Nancy Yacovzada[1,2], Eviatar Weizman[3], Manuela Neumann[4,5], Aron S Buchman[6,7], Yanling Wang[6], David A Bennett[7], Jonathan D Glass[8], Adam N Trautwig[8], Nicholas T Seyfried[8], Johnathan Cooper-Knock[9], Eran Hornstein[1,2#]

[1]Department of Molecular Genetics, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, Israel

[2]Department of Molecular Neuroscience, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, Israel

[3]G-INCPM, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot 7610001, Israel

[4]Department of Neuropathology, University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany

[5]Molecular Neuropathology of Neurodegenerative Diseases, German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases, Tübingen, Germany

[6]Rush Alzheimer's Disease Center, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, IL, USA

[7]Department of Neurological Sciences, Rush University Medical Center, Chicago, IL, USA

[8]Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA USA

[9]Sheffield Institute for Translational Neuroscience, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, S10 2HQ, UK

* These authors contributed equally

Corresponding Author: Eran.Hornstein@weizmann.ac.il

Abstract

Loss of nuclear TDP-43 splicing activity is a common feature across neurodegenerative diseases including

amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD), but its relevance to

Alzheimer's disease (AD) remains unclear. Here, we show that TDP-43 pathology in AD is broadly

associated with splicing abnormalities, including aberrant splicing of amyloid precursor protein (APP).

TDP-43 drives the formation of elongated APP isoforms, disrupting alternative splicing across ALS, FTLD-

TDP and AD, providing a compelling mechanism for a long-standing observation of APP isoform

dysregulation. We further establish a mechanistic link between TDP-43, APP splicing, and Aβ pathology.

Surprisingly, the disruption to alternative APP splicing is mediated by a toxic gain of cytoplasmic TDP-43

function, rather than loss of its nuclear role. Using proximity proteomics and base editing in human iPSC-

derived neurons, we show that TDP-43 pathology causes cytoplasmic co-sequestration of splicing

regulators SCAF11, SRSF5, and TIAL1. Knockdown of these regulators also results in APP mis-splicing and

increased Aβ burden, without affecting other TDP-43 targets such as STMN2 or UNC13A. Together, our

findings suggest that TDP-43-mediated splicing dysfunction upstream of APP contributes to the

pathogenesis of seemingly disparate neurodegenerative diseases, uniting AD and ALS/FTLD-TDP through

a shared molecular mechanism.

Introduction

Dysregulation of alternative splicing has been broadly implicated in the pathogenesis of several neurodegenerative disorders, including ALS, FTD and AD [1,2]. TDP-43, encoded by the TARDBP gene, is a ubiquitous DNA- and RNA-binding protein (RBP) that localizes to the nucleus, where it regulates RNA processing in multiple ways, including splicing [3,4]. In nearly all cases of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) and up to 50% of frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD) patients, TDP-43 forms insoluble cytoplasmic inclusions and is depleted from the nucleus [5–8], leading to widespread splicing disruption and the inclusion of cryptic exons in mRNAs such as cytoskeleton-related STMN2 and synaptic UNC13A [9–14]. Cryptic exon splicing of these targets is evident in several other neurodegenerative states including Alzheimer's Disease (AD) and Huntington's disease [9,10,13,15–18]. TDP-43 pathology is found in up to 57% of AD cases, where it correlates with disease severity [19,20] and is associated with increased Tau burden [21]. Critically, while alternative splicing is known to play a role in AD [22–28], the contribution of TDP-43 pathology to this remains largely unexplored.

The proteolytic processing of amyloid precursor protein (APP) into the neurotoxic Aβ peptide is thought to be a crucial step in the development of Alzheimer's disease (AD) [29,30]. Aβ aggregation is associated with elevated activity of APP-cleaving enzymes [31,32] or to certain genetic variants in APP [33–35]. Intriguingly, alternative splicing of exons 7 and 8 governs the production of three major APP isoforms: the neuron-enriched APP695 and two longer forms: APP751, and APP770. APP751 and APP770 contain the Kunitz protease inhibitor (KPI) domain while APP770 additionally includes the OX-2 domain [36,37]. Protein and mRNA levels of KPI(+)APP are elevated in AD and have been associated with increased Aβ production [38–42]. However, the mechanistic underpinning of alternative splicing of APP in AD is not well understood.

Here, we show that TDP-43 pathology is broadly associated with splicing abnormalities in AD including the regulation of APP alternative splicing. This finding extends across neurodegenerative diseases, suggesting a commonality for ALS/FTLD-TDP and AD. Moreover, this analysis reveals the mechanistic underpinning of APP isoform dysregulation that was originally reported several decades ago [38–42] that partially mediates Aβ pathology. Surprisingly, toxic gain of TDP-43 function, not loss of nuclear TDP-43 function, causes the shift in APP isoforms. We characterize the mechanism, which involves cytoplasmic co-sequestration of three other splicing regulators from the nucleus: SCAF11, SRSF5 and TIAL1. Taken together, TDP-43 pathology ties seemingly disparate neurodegenerative diseases together via splicing dysfunction.

Results

TDP-43 pathology is associated to splicing abnormalities in Alzheimer's Disease

To investigate whether TDP-43 pathology contributes to alternative splicing in AD, we analyzed RNA

sequencing data of post-mortem dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) tissue samples from the Religious

Orders Study and Rush Memory and Aging Project (ROSMAP [43], Synapse: syn4164376 [44]). We performed

splicing analysis with MAJIQ [45], comparing patients clinically diagnosed with AD dementia (N = 253) to

controls without cognitive impairment (N = 201), and comparing brain tissues with TDP-43 pathology (N

= 150) to those without (N = 150) (demographics in **Table 4 (Methods)** and sample IDs in **Supplementary**

Table 1). In total, aberrant splicing events were found in 2890 mRNAs in AD cases compared to controls,

and in 1596 mRNAs in tissue samples with TDP-43 pathology compared to those without (|deltaPSI| >

0.02, signifying the change in percent spliced in (PSI) between conditions, and P-value < 0.05;

Supplementary Table 2). A significant portion of the mRNAs alternatively spliced in AD was also

alternatively spliced upon TDP-43 pathology (Fisher's exact P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 1A**). This includes the

majority of mRNAs previously reported to be mis-spliced in AD by Raj et al. [22]. Moreover, the exact splice

junctions alternatively used in AD significantly overlapped with those alternatively used upon TDP-43

pathology (Fisher's exact P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 1B**). Notably, the magnitude and direction of splicing

changes at these overlapping junctions were remarkably concordant (Pearson r = 0.934, P < 0.0001, **Figure**

1C), strongly implicating TDP-43 pathology as a major driver of splicing dysregulation in AD.

Among the mRNAs mis-spliced in AD and upon TDP-43 pathology is PICALM, which is genetically

associated to AD [46] and was previously reported to be mis-spliced in AD [22]. Usage of the splice junction

between exons 12 and 14 was increased by 8% in AD (P-value < 0.001) and by 6% upon TDP-43 pathology

(P-value < 0.01, **Figure 1D**). Accordingly, the splice junction between exons 13 and 14 was used 9% less in

AD (P-value < 0.001) and 6% less upon TDP-43 pathology (P-value < 0.05, **Figure 1D**). Other highly mis-

spliced targets include NCAM1 (**Supplementary Figure 1A**) and KIDINS220 (**Supplementary Figure 1B**),

both of which have been implicated in AD [47–49].

We next asked whether TDP-43 pathology could contribute to aberrant splicing of the microtubule-

associated protein Tau (MAPT) gene. More than 30 isoforms are predicted to arise as a result of alternative

splicing of MAPT mRNA, but most variation comes from altered inclusion of exons 2, 3 and 10 [50]. Analysis

of ROSMAP data revealed that the junction between exons 2 and 5 was used 5% more in AD (P-value <

0.05) and 5% more upon TDP-43 pathology (P-value < 0.05), while inclusion of exon 3 was decreased with

5% in both comparisons (P-value < 0.05, **Figure 1E**). Thus, TDP-43 pathology broadly affects splicing of key

effectors of AD.

Amyloid precursor protein is aberrantly spliced upon TDP-43 pathology

Alternative splicing of amyloid precursor protein (APP) has been recognized in AD for more than three

decades [38–41,51,52], however, its mechanistic underpinnings remain unknown. Our results demonstrate that

APP mRNA is significantly mis-spliced both in AD and when there is TDP-43 pathology (MAJIQ P-value <

0.0001, **Figure 1F, G**). The junction between exons 6 and 9, which produces isoform APP695 (**Figure 1F**),

was used 5% less in samples with TDP-43 pathology compared to those without (P-value < 0.01). This was

accompanied by a reciprocal 5% increase in splice events involving exon 7 or exons 7-and-8 inclusion,

leading to APP751 or APP770 formation, respectively (P-values < 0.01, **Figure 1F, G** and **Supplementary**

Table 3).

An orthogonal bioinformatic approach, with RNA-Seq by Expectation Maximization RSEM [53] (N=505)

revealed 20% reduced expression of APP695 (P-value < 0.001) and a higher APP751+APP770 expression

(P-value < 0.01) in samples with TDP-43 pathology, relative to those without (**Supplementary Figure 1C**).

In addition, abundance of two peptides mapping specifically to the longer APP isoforms (APP751 and

APP770) was increased in ROSMAP samples with TDP-43 pathology compared to those without (P-values

< 0.05, **Figure 1H**), confirming APP isoform dysregulation at the protein level.

To test whether the association of TDP-43 pathology to APP splicing is present in other neurodegenerative

conditions, we next analyzed RNA sequencing data from neuronal nuclei displaying TDP-43 pathology in

ALS/FTLD-TDP human brains [54] (**Figure 1I**). Splicing analysis comparing TDP-43-positive to TDP-43-

depleted nuclei revealed 8837 aberrant splicing events (|deltaPSI| > 0.1 and P-value < 0.1) in 2947 genes,

including UNC13A and STMN2 (**Supplementary Table 2**). Approximately one third of the mRNAs

alternatively spliced in AD associated to TDP-43 are also evident in ALS/FTLD-TDP (Fisher's exact P-value

< 0.0001, **Supplementary Figure 1D**), suggesting a broad overlap in TDP-43–dependent splicing defects

across both diseases. In TDP-43-depleted nuclei, usage of the splice junction between APP exons 6 and 9

decreased by 10% compared to control nuclei (P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 1J** and **Supplementary Table 3**).

Figure 1: TDP-43 pathology is associated with widespread mis-splicing in Alzheimer's Disease including in amyloid

precursor protein (APP). MAJIQ [45] splicing analysis of bulk RNA-seq data from dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC)

tissue from the ROSMAP study [44], comparing patients clinically diagnosed with AD (N = 253) to controls with no

cognitive impairment (N = 201), and comparing brain tissues with TDP-43 pathology (N = 150) to those without (N =

150) (+/- TDP-43 pathology). Venn diagrams display the overlap in **(A)** mRNAs mis-spliced in both analyses (Fisher's

exact P-value < 0.0001) or **(B)** exact MAJIQ splice junctions alternatively used in both comparisons (Fisher's exact P-

value < 0.0001). **(C)** A scatter plot of change in percent spliced in (deltaPSI) per specific splice junction in TDP-43

pathology, relative to TDP-43 negative AD brains (x-axis) vs AD pathology relative to controls without cognitive

impairment (y-axis). Pearson r = 0.934, P < 0.0001. Schematic of the splice junctions detected by MAJIQ in **(D)** PICALM

exons 12-14 or **(E)** MAPT exons 2-5, and corresponding percent spliced-in (PSI) values in ROSMAP AD (N = 253) versus

control (CTR) samples (N = 201) and samples with TDP-43 pathology (+, N = 150) versus those without (-, N = 150) [43].

Median PSIs per group are indicated. **(F)** Schematic of the splice junctions detected by MAJIQ in APP exons 6-9 and

the corresponding known isoforms, and corresponding PSI values in ROSMAP samples comparing AD versus control

samples or **(G)** tissue samples with TDP-43 pathology (+) versus those without (-). Median PSIs per group are

indicated. **(H)** Abundance of two peptides mapping specifically to longer APP isoforms APP751 and APP770

comparing ROSMAP samples with TDP-43 pathology (+) versus those without (-). Values are log-transformed. P-

values ** < 0.01, * < 0.05, one-way ANOVA. **(I)** Diagram of the experimental setup of the published study of Liu et

al. [54], in which neuronal nuclei were isolated from ALS/FTLD-TDP brains and sorted to separate between TDP-43-

positive nuclei without pathology and TDP-43-negative nuclei (with pathology). **(J)** MAJIQ percent spliced-in (PSI)

values of the APP exons 6-9 splice junctions in TDP-43-positive nuclei without pathology (-) vs TDP-43-negative nuclei

(with pathology, +). Data from 7 cases, 35,000 to 100,000 nuclei pre-sorting per case. MAJIQ P-values: ** < 0.01, ***

< 0.001, **** < 0.0001, Wilcoxon test.

Accordingly, the junction between exons 7 and 9 was used 10% more (P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 1J**). In

addition, the splice junction between exons 6 and 7 was used 7% more in TDP-43-depleted nuclei,

resulting in an increase in isoforms APP751 and APP770 compared to control (P-value < 0.01, **Figure 1J**).

These results, arising from direct comparison between pure TDP-43-positive and TDP-43-negative

populations, confirm APP mis-splicing downstream of TDP-43 pathology and extend the observations to

ALS/FTLD-TDP, suggesting a shared molecular mechanism across neurodegenerative diseases.

TDP-43 pathology and consequent APP mis-splicing lead to increased amyloid-β pathology

Previous reports suggest a correlation between elevated protein and mRNA levels of KPI(+)APP (APP751

and APP770) and increased amyloid-β (Aβ) production in AD [38–40]. Thus, we examined whether TDP-43

pathology could lead to increased Aβ through APP mis-splicing. First, we tested the correlation between

TDP-43 pathology, APP isoforms, and Aβ in human post-mortem brain tissue. ROSMAP DLPFC samples that displayed TDP-43 pathology also showed ~1.4-fold increased Aβ pathology by immunohistochemistry (P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 2A**) as well as mass spectrometry (P-value < 0.001**, Figure 2B**). In addition, binning samples by their ratio of APP770+APP751 over APP695 mRNA levels (**Methods**) found a correlation between higher (APP770+APP751)/APP695 ratio and elevated Aβ pathology (P-value < 0.05, **Figure 2C, D**). Although this correlation exists regardless of TDP-43 pathology status, the increase in Aβ pathology was significantly larger in the presence of TDP-43 pathology (P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 2E**).

Next, we conducted causal chain mediation analyses to quantify whether APP isoform levels explain part of the relationship between TDP-43 pathology and Aβ pathology in DLPFC samples from the ROSMAP study [43] (**Table 1**). The total effect of TDP-43 on Aβ (noted c) is the overall impact of TDP-43 on Aβ - including both direct (noted c') and mediated effects (noted a and b) - where c=c'+ab. First, we modeled the total effect of TDP-43 on Aβ using linear regression of Aβ over TDP-43 and found that TDP-43 is a significant predictor and positively correlated, explaining 6.5% of the variance in Aβ (coefficient c = 0.4029, P-value < 0.0001). Secondly, the relationship between TDP-43 pathology and different APP isoforms (noted a) was tested: TDP-43 is positively correlated with APP770 levels (coefficient a = 1.874, P-value < 0.0001) and with APP751+APP770 (coefficient a = 0.0465, P-value = 0.003), and negatively correlated with APP695 (coefficient a = -21.8, P-value = 0.005). A positive correlation is also found between TDP-43 and APP7701+APP695 (coefficient a = 0.047, P-value < 0.0001) as well as APP751+APP7701+APP695 (coefficient a = 0.051, P-value = 0.001). Lastly, to estimate mediation effects for the different APP isoforms, we quantified the effect of APP on Aβ pathology while controlling for TDP-43 (**Table 1**). If c' (direct effect of TDP-43 on amyloid beta) is reduced or non-significant when APP is added, then APP mediates the effect. APP770, APP7701+APP695 and APP751+APP7701+APP695 are all mediating the effect of TDP-43 on Aβ, with APP7701+APP695 mediating the largest proportion (0.08, P-value < 0.0001, **Table 1** and **Figure 2F**). No significant mediation effect was found for APP695. Altogether, these results demonstrate that TDP-43 pathology strongly influences Aβ pathology and that at least part of this effect is mediated through increased levels of APP770 and APP751 relative to APP695.

Figure 2: TDP-43 pathology and consequent APP mis-splicing lead to increased Aβ production. Aβ pathology in human DLPFC samples from the ROSMAP study [43] comparing samples with (+) or without (-) TDP-43 pathology as measured by **(A)** immunohistochemistry [55,56] (N=542) or **(B)** mass spectrometry [57] (N=410). Aβ pathology (immunohistochemistry) in human DLPFC samples from the ROSMAP study comparing samples with low, medium or high levels of APP751+APP770 relative to APP695 in **(C)** samples without TDP-43 pathology and **(D)** samples with TDP-pathology, and **(E)** samples with (+) or without (-) TDP-43 pathology binned by levels of APP751+APP770 relative to APP695. Lines and error bars represent mean and standard deviation. P-values ****< 0.0001, ***< 0.001, ** < 0.01, *< 0.05; unpaired two-sided t-test or one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. **(F)** Diagram depicting the results of mediation analysis testing the effect of TDP-43 pathology on Aβ pathology mediated by APP770 levels relative to APP695 levels.

236   **Table 1: Results of mediation analyses testing the effects of TDP-43 pathology and APP isoforms on Aβ**

237   **pathology.**

Hypothesized mediation pathway: TDP-43 → APP → Aβ	
Pathway	**Equation**
TDP-43 → Aβ (without mediation)	$A\beta = \alpha_0 + c \cdot TDP43 + \varepsilon_0$
TDP-43 → APP	$APP = \alpha_1 + a \cdot TDP43 + \varepsilon_1$
$APP \to A\beta$ (when controlling for TDP-43)	$A\beta = \alpha_2 + c' \cdot TDP43 + b \cdot APP + \varepsilon_2$

Total Effect (c) $\simeq$ Direct effect (c') + Indirect effect ($a \cdot b$)

 |

$APP770$ **as mediator**		
Pathway	**Coefficient**	**P-value**
TDP-43 → Aβ (without mediation)	$c = 0.4029$	0.000
TDP-43 → $APP770$	$a = 1.874$	0.000
$APP770 \to A\beta$ (when controlling for TDP-43)	$b = 0.0152c'$ $= 0.3742$	0.000, 0.000

Significance of the indirect effect via bootstrapping: $a \cdot b = 0.028$, **95% CI** $[\mathbf{0.012, 0.047}]$

Total Effect (c) = 0.429, **direct Effect (c')**= 0.374 $c' < c$ and $c' \neq 0 \Rightarrow APP770$ **is a partial mediator.** **Proportion Mediated** $\frac{(a \cdot b)}{c} = 0.071 = 7\%$.

$\frac{APP770}{1+APP695}$ **as mediator**

Pathway	Coefficient	P-value
TDP-43 → Aβ (without mediation)	$c = 0.4029$	0.000
TDP-43 → $\frac{APP770}{1+APP695}$	$a = 0.0471$	0.000
$\frac{APP770}{1+APP695} \rightarrow A\beta$ (when controlling for TDP-43)	$b = 0.6800$ $c' = 0.3705$	0.000 0.000
Significance of the indirect effect via bootstrapping: $a \cdot b = 0.032$, **95% CI** $[\mathbf{0.014}, \mathbf{0.052}]$		
Total Effect (c) = 0.403, **direct Effect (c')**= 0.371 $c' < c$ and $c' \neq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{APP770}{1+APP695}$ **is a partial mediator.** **Proportion Mediated** $\frac{(a \cdot b)}{c} = 0.080 = 8\%$		

$\frac{APP751+APP770}{1+APP695}$ **as mediator**

Pathway	Coefficient	P-value
TDP-43 → Aβ (without mediation)	$c = 0.4029$	0.000
TDP-43 → $\frac{APP571+APP770}{1+APP695}$	$a = 0.0512$	0.001
$\frac{APP751 + APP770}{1 + APP695} \rightarrow A\beta$ (when controlling for TDP-43)	$b = 0.2390$ $c' = 0.3904$	0.020 0.000
Significance of the indirect effect via bootstrapping: $a \cdot b = 0.012$, **95% CI** $[\mathbf{0.001}, \mathbf{0.025}]$		
Total Effect (c) = 0.403, **direct Effect (c')**= 0.390 $c' < c$ and $c' \neq 0 \Rightarrow \frac{APP751+APP770}{1+APP695}$ **is a partial mediator.** **Proportion Mediated** $\frac{(a \cdot b)}{c} = 0.030 = 3\%$		

Cytoplasmic gain of toxic function, not loss of nuclear TDP-43 function, leads to APP mis-splicing

We next asked whether the loss of TDP-43 per se is associated with alternative splicing of APP. Analysis of

RNA sequencing data of TDP-43 knockdown (KD) in iPSC-derived neurons [10] did not reveal aberrant APP

splicing (deltaPSI < 0.01, P-values > 0.6), **Figure 3A** and **Supplementary Table 3**). Similarly, no APP mis-

splicing was observed upon complete knockout of TDP-43 in HeLa cells [58] (deltaPSI < 0.01, P-values > 0.55,

Figure 3B and **Supplementary Table 3**). Furthermore, only 16% of the mRNA species that displayed

aberrant splicing in TDP-43-negative ALS/FTLD-TDP brain nuclei were affected by TDP-43 KD (**Figure 3C**).

Therefore, a substantial portion of the splicing changes observed in post-mortem tissue cannot be

explained solely by the loss of TDP-43 function and likely involve additional molecular mechanisms.

We hypothesized that APP splicing is affected by TDP-43 mislocalization to the cytoplasm, which is a core

feature of disease pathology, but is not observed after TDP-43 KD. To test this, we overexpressed a TDP-

43 construct carrying a mutagenized nuclear localization signal (NLS) - rendering it cytoplasmic - in iPSC-

derived neurons (iNs), as described before [59]. As a cytoplasmic overexpression control, we induced

neurons that overexpress a nuclear export signal (NES, **Figure 3D**). Next-generation RNA sequencing and

splicing analysis (**Supplementary Table 2**) revealed a 32% decrease in the usage of the APP695-specific

splice junction in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} relative to NES (P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 3E** and **Supplementary Table 3**).

In contrast, the usage of the APP751-specific splice junction was increased by 24% (P-value < 0.0001,

Figure 3E). Similarly, the junction between exon 6 and 7 was used 32% more (P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 3E**).

Quantification of the three major isoforms by reverse transcription PCR (RT-PCR) (**Figure 3F**) verified a

significant 19% reduction in APP695 (P-value < 0.01, **Figure 3G**) and a concomitant 4-fold increase in

APP770 in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} (P-value < 0.00001, **Figure 3G**). These observations correlate with aberrant APP

splicing and TDP-43 pathology in human ALS/FTLD-TDP and AD brains. Finally, about 15% of the mRNAs

mis-spliced upon TDP-43 pathology in ALS/FTLD-TDP postmortem tissue [54] were also mis-spliced in TDP-

43^{deltaNLS} neurons (**Figure 3H**). This number is in the same ballpark of TDP-43 KD models, suggesting toxic

gain-of-function through mislocalization similarly contributes to splicing defects in ALS/FTLD-TDP.

The mislocalization of splicing regulators upon cytoplasmic TDP-43

Since many splicing abnormalities associated with ALS/FTLD-TDP could not be explained solely by the

nuclear loss of TDP-43, we hypothesized that additional splicing regulators are mislocalized with TDP-43

to the cytoplasm. To test this, we performed nucleo-cytoplasmic fractionation and mass spectrometry

using induced neurons expressing either TDP-43^{deltaNLS} or NES (**Figure 4A** and **Supplementary Table 4**). The

nuclear proteins Lamin-B1 and HDAC1 were highly enriched in the nuclear fraction of both TDP-43^{deltaNLS}

and the control NES cell lines (log2FC = 5.7 / 5.1, FDR = 0; **Supplementary Figure 2A**). In addition, analysis

of the top 200 most enriched or depleted proteins in the nucleus, using the gene ontology database [60,61]

confirmed proper separation of the nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions (**Supplementary Figure 2B, C**).

Figure 3: Gain of toxic function of cytoplasmic TDP-43 mislocalization causes APP mis-splicing. Percent spliced in (PSI) of splice junctions corresponding to the 3 main APP isoforms as determined by RNAseq and MAJIQ [45] in **(A)** TDP-43 knockdown (KD) in cultured neurons [10], or **(B)** knockout in HeLa cells [58]. **(C)** Venn diagram of alternatively spliced mRNAs in ALS/FTLD-TDP- post-mortem neuronal nuclei displaying TDP-43 pathology [54] and TDP-43 KD in cultured neurons [10]. **(D)** Diagram of experimental setup: iPSCs carrying transgenes were differentiated into day 8 cortical neurons [98], at which point NLS-mutated TDP-43 (TDP-43^{deltaNLS}) or nuclear export signal (NES) expression was induced with doxycycline. **(E)** MAJIQ PSI values of splice junctions corresponding to the 3 main APP isoforms in cultured neurons expressing NES or TDP-43^{deltaNLS}. P-values **** < 0.0001. **(F)** Gel electrophoresis of reverse transcription PCR products from APP mRNA isoforms in induced neurons that express either NES or TDP-43^{deltaNLS} and **(G)** corresponding quantification of PCR band intensities (arbitrary units). P-values ****< 0.0001, **< 0.01; unpaired two-sided t-test. **(H)** Venn diagram of alternatively spliced mRNAs in ALS/FTLD-TDP post-mortem neuronal nuclei displaying TDP-43 pathology [54] and in cultured neurons expressing TDP-43^{deltaNLS}.

Expression of TDP-43^{deltaNLS} was associated with the cytoplasmic enrichment of 173 proteins, relative to the cytoplasm of NES control neurons (FDR < 0.05, FC > 2; **Figure 4B**). TDP-43 itself was among the most enriched proteins with a 6.5-fold higher cytoplasmic expression in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} (FDR = 0.017, **Figure 4B**). Additionally, 20 of the mislocalized proteins are known to be involved in regulation of splicing: CELF1 [62–64], CPSF7 [65], CRIPT [66], DDX17 [67–69], DHX16 [70], ERH [71,72], FAM98B [73], HNRNPLL [74–77], LGALS3 [78,79], NONO [80,81], PSPC1 [81], PTBP2 [82], SNRPC [83,84], SRSF1 [85–88], SRSF2 [87–90], SRSF4 [87,88,91], SRSF5 [87,88,92,93], SRSF6 [87,88,92,94], SUPT6H [95] and U2SURP [96,97]. TDP-43^{deltaNLS} increased the cytoplasmic-to-nuclear ratio of these 20 splicing regulators relative to NES -expressing neurons (**Figure 4C**), suggesting that additional splicing regulators might be mislocalized to the cytoplasm, together with TDP-43, in human neurons.

Proximity labeling proteomics reveals additional cytoplasmic interactors of TDP-43

To elucidate the molecular mechanism related to aberrant splicing downstream of cytoplasmic TDP-43 localization, we characterized the proteins in the vicinity of the cytoplasmic TDP-43. To do this, we leveraged an existing proximity labeling proteomics dataset we recently obtained using TDP-43^{deltaNLS}-APEX neurons [59] (**Figure 4D**). APEX facilitates free radical formation upon exposure to hydrogen peroxide (H2O2), generating biotin-phenol (BP) radicals that attach to neighboring biomolecules. In this dataset, sodium arsenite stress was included as a treatment to model TDP-43 condensation. TDP-43 partially relocalized into biomolecular condensates and co-localized with stress granule marker G3BP1 in induced neurons that were treated with sodium arsenite (250 uM, 90 minutes), (**Supplementary Figure 3**), consistent with previous reports [99–106].

Figure 4: Probing cytoplasmic co-sequestration of splicing regulators by TDP-43. (A) Schematic of the subcellular fractionation method to measure protein content of cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions of TDP-43^{deltaNLS}- and NES-expressing neurons. **(B)** Volcano plot depicting protein abundance in the cytoplasm of neurons expressing TDP-43^{deltaNLS} compared to a cytoplasmic control construct (NES). Factors associated with the Gene Ontology term 'splicing' are shown in blue; TDP-43 itself is depicted in red. **(C)** Relative cytoplasmic enrichment of the 14 splicing regulators in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} compared to control NES in human neurons. For each protein, the ratio of cytoplasmic to nuclear expression in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} was divided to the ratio in NES. **(D)** Schematic of APEX proximity labeling in TDP-43^{deltaNLS}- and NES-expressing neurons as reported in [59]. **(E)** Volcano plots of differential protein enrichment in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} samples (right) versus NES samples (left), with TDP-43 shown in red and factors associated with the Gene Ontology term 'splicing' in blue. **(F)** The potential TDP-43 interactors were consistently found in two different experiments in both unstressed and/or stressed conditions.

Reassuringly, TDP-43 itself was among the most enriched proteins (FDR = 0, log2FC = 5.24; red dots in **Figure 4E** and **Supplementary Figure 4A**). While the overall number of proteins identified in each experiment was different, 211 proteins were detected in both experiments under basal growth conditions (unstressed) and 229 proteins under stress (FDR, < 0.01, log2FC > 2, **Supplementary Table 5**). 126 proteins were consistently associated with cytoplasmic TDP-43 regardless of stress state (**Figure 4F**). Gene Ontology (GO) pathway molecular function analysis revealed substantial enrichment of DNA- and RNA-binding proteins (**Supplementary Figure 4B**), which aligns with known TDP-43 functions [3,4,107]. Among the proteins associated with TDP-43 were 11 splicing regulators, including CELF2 [108], TIA1 and TIAL1 [109,110] (**Table 2**).

Table 2: Splice regulators associated with TDP-43^{deltaNLS}.

basal interactors only	interactors under stress only	interactors under basal and stress conditions
CELF2	CASC3	SCAF11
METTL3	ECD	TARDBP
TIAL1	IVNS1ABP	TIA1
	TTF2	
	ZCCHC8	

Knockdown of splicing regulators associated with TDP-43 partially recapitulates TDP-associated changes

We next investigated whether the newly identified TDP-43 interactors play a role in splicing by generating loss-of-function alleles (knockdown, KD), using a cytidine base editor [111] in human iPSCs that were differentiated to cortical neurons. In total, we identified 31 splicing regulators in the fractionation and proximity labeling experiments described above. Out of these, we shortlisted 8 proteins that are localized mostly to the nucleus under basal conditions: CELF2 [112–116], CPSF7 [65], HNRNPLL [74–77], SCAF11 [117], SRSF5 [87,88,92,93], SUPT6H [95], TIA1 [109,110,118] and TIAL1 [118–120] (**Figure 5A**). TIA1 was included because of its genetic association with ALS [121,122], and TIAL1 is its paralog and acts in close coordination [118,120,123,124]. The introduction of premature stop codons led to downregulation of mRNA levels and plausibly prevented the formation of full-length protein products **(Supplementary Figure 5)**. Full RNA sequencing followed by splicing analysis revealed differential usage (|deltaPSI| > 0.1, P-value < 0.1) of hundreds of splice junctions upon KD of the eight splicing regulators (**Table 3** and **Supplementary Table 2**). TIA1 displayed the mildest phenotype, although this is likely due to the fact that we could only generate a heterozygous KD (generation of a homozygote was unsuccessful; **Table 3**).

Table 3: Number of splice junctions with significantly different usage between conditions (|deltaPSI| > 0.1, P-value < 0.1).

KD condition	Number of junctions that were included more / less upon KD
SRSF5 (homozygous)	2656 /2708
CPSF7 (homozygous)	1666 /1574
SUPT6H (homozygous)	1533 /1559
TIAL1 (homozygous)	1108 /1120
CELF2 (homozygous)	950 /943
HNRNPLL (homozygous)	903 /923
SCAF11 (homozygous)	870 /934
TIA1 (heterozygous)	691 /645

We next compared changes in splicing at previously reported TDP-43–dependent junctions, using data from the literature [10,43,54,58,125,126], RNA-seq of neuronal cultures knocked down for eight splicing regulators (**Table 3**), and control-induced neurons. Aberrant cryptic exon splicing was detected in STMN2 and UNC13A upon TDP-43 KD and upon TDP-43 pathology in both ALS/FTLD-TDP and AD tissues (**Figure 5B**),

consistent with previous reports [9,10,13,15]. Interestingly, UNC13A was misspliced upon SRSF5 and SUPT6H

KD (**Figure 5B**), but the mis-splicing occurred at a different splice junction than what has been previously

reported in the literature [9,10]. In SRSF5 KD neurons, two events were significantly altered in UNC13A: one

mapping to canonical exon 7 and an unannotated exon identified by MAJIQ (hg38; chr19:17665549-

17665977, |deltaPSI| = 17%, P-value < 0.05), and another involving exon 37 and canonical exon 39 (hg38;

chr19:17623118-17623263, |deltaPSI| = 20%, P-value < 0.05) (**Supplementary Figure 6A**). The same mis-

splicing in exon 7 and an annotated exon occurred upon SUPT6H KD (|deltaPSI| = 18%, P-value < 0.05,

Supplementary Figure 6B). Each of these events was relatively rare, with only a few dozen reads mapping

to each junction. Reported mis-splicing events in MYO18A [125] and ANXA11 [126] were found upon KD of

several TDP-43-associated splicing regulators (**Figure 5B**). In the case of ANXA11 and APP, mis-splicing was

seen in post-mortem tissues and upon KD of splicing regulators, but not upon TDP-43 KD. This suggests

the nuclear loss of regulators, rather than the loss of TDP-43 itself, is causing aberrant splicing in these

mRNAs.

More broadly, when comparing significantly mis-spliced mRNAs(|deltaPSI| > 0.1, P-value < 0.1 in at least

one junction) across all conditions, KD of each of the 8 splicing regulators was associated to hundred and

sometimes hundreds of splicing events that arise with TDP-43 pathology [54] (Fisher's exact P-values <

0.0001, **Figure 5C**). A substantial fraction of the splicing events that are associated with TDP-43 pathology

in post-mortem tissue [54] are also observed as a consequence of the loss of specific splicing regulators.[54]

For example, 20% of the mRNAs that were mis-spliced in ALS/FTLD-TDP CNSare also alternatively spliced

upon SRSF5 KD (585 out of 2947 mRNAs, Fisher's exact P-value < 0.0001, **Figure 5C**). These results suggest

that mislocalization of TDP-43 to the cytoplasm leads to splicing defects not only because of the loss of

TDP-43 function from the nucleus, but at least in part because of the sequestration of other splicing

regulators from the nucleus.

Knockdown of TDP-43-associated splicing regulators leads to APP mis-splicing and Aβ generation

We next examined whether the loss of TDP-43-associated splicing regulators could cause the APP mis-

splicing observed upon cytoplasmic TDP-43 mislocalization (**Figure 3E**). Knockdown of TIAL1, SCAF11, and

SRSF5 led to an increase in the usage of the junction between APP exons 7 and 8 (P-values < 0.0001, **Figure**

5D, left and **Supplementary Table 3**), similar to what was observed in ALS/FTLD-TDP brains (**Figure 1G, I**).

In addition, the junction between exons 7 and 9 was used more upon TIAL1 KD (P-value < 0.05, **Figure 5D**,

right and **Supplementary Table 3**). This was verified with RT-PCR (P-values < 0.05, **Figure 5E**). These results

suggest that co-sequestration of splicing regulators from the nucleus along with TDP-43, impairs the

balance between APP isoforms towards APP751 and APP770.

Finally, to test how these changes ultimately affect Aβ, we stained cultured neurons for Aβ (**Figure 5F**).

We observed increased cytoplasmic Aβ intensity in TIAL1 and SCAF11 KD neurons compared to control (P-

values < 0.001 and < 0.0001, respectively, **Figure 5G**), but not in SRSF5 KD neuronal cultures. Furthermore,

the number of Aβ-positive puncta was increased in all three KD lines (P-values < 0.05, **Figure 5H**).

Altogether, these results suggest that dysregulation of splicing regulators, in addition to TDP-43 itself, may

contribute to the pathophysiology of neurodegenerative disorders.

 Figure 5: Knockdown of TDP-43-associated splicing regulators partially recapitulates ALS/FTLD-TDP-associated

 changes. (A) Schematic overview of the steps prioritizing 8 splicing regulators for KD in iPSCs. **(B)** Change in percent

 spliced in (deltaPSI) per splice junction as determined by MAJIQ in KD neurons compared to control. Junctions shown

 are those previously identified and characterized in the literature [125,126]. Significant events in UNC13A, STMN2, APP

 are annotated, specifically in AD and ALS patients with TDP pathology [10,43,54,125]. **(C)** Upsetplot comparison of shared

 splicing changes across conditions. Numbers on the left indicate the total number of mRNAs alternatively spliced,

 and numbers on the top indicate the number of mis-spliced mRNAs shared between datasets. P-values **** <

 0.0001, Fisher's exact test comparing the significantly mis-spliced mRNAsin each dataset with those in TDP-43

 pathology [54]. In the comparisons of three groups, a hypergeometric test was applied. **(D)** Alternative splicing of exons

 6-9 of the APP mRNA as determined by MAJIQ in different KD neurons compared to control. Plots display percent

 spliced in (PSI) values normalized to control per junction. P-values * < 0.1, **** < 0.001. **(E)** Gel of reverse

 transcription PCR products from APP mRNA isoforms in induced neurons and corresponding quantification of PCR

 band intensities (arbitrary units). **(F)** Representative images of Aβ immunofluorescent staining in iPSC-derived

 neurons KD for TIAL1, SCAF11 or SRSF5. Corresponding quantification of **(G)** mean cytoplasmic intensity, normalized

 to WT, and **(H)** number of puncta normalized by cell number. Data from 3 repeats, 25 images per repeat are plotted;

 each point represents the average per **(G)** image or **(H)** well. P-values * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001, **** < 0.0001.

Discussion

Our study establishes a new and unexpected connection across different neurodegenerative disorders. We show that TDP-43 pathology is broadly associated with splicing alterations in AD, including in the amyloid precursor protein (APP) gene. Both in AD and ALS/FTLD-TDP, TDP-43 pathology shifts the isoform balance towards APP751 and APP770. We show that this splicing alteration correlates with increased amyloid-β (Aβ) pathology, providing molecular evidence linking TDP-43 pathology to APP dysregulation and amyloid pathology. Functional validation using iPSC-derived neurons confirmed that cytoplasmic TDP-43 sequestration, rather than nuclear depletion, drives APP mis-splicing, suggesting an orthogonal but compatible mechanism to previously reported [9,10,13,17] loss of nuclear TDP-43 function. Finally, we report several RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) that are regulators of splicing and are co-sequestered with TDP-43. The splicing regulators potentially contribute to the dysregulation of splicing.

While TDP-43 proteinopathy was first linked with ALS and FTD [5], the presence of TDP-43 pathology in up to 57% of AD cases [20,127] and dysregulated TDP-43 in Huntington's disease (HD) [16] underscores its role in neurodegeneration. Abnormal levels or subcellular distribution of TDP-43 contributes to neuronal loss [100,128,129], and in AD, TDP-43 pathology correlates with worsened cognitive decline [130] and severity of pathology [131]. Thus, TDP-43 dysfunction might be a common key contributor to neurodegenerative diseases.

Splicing dysregulation is emerging as an important causal mechanism of neurodegeneration in diverse diseases. Splicing defects in AD have been documented previously [22–28] and offer a mechanistic explanation for genetic variants in novel and known AD genes, including APP [22]. However, the upstream causes remained unclear. Our data suggest that TDP-43 pathology is a significant driver of splicing abnormalities in AD, explaining a third of the total splicing changes in the AD brain. This goes far beyond any mechanism previously reported for the regulation of splicing in AD.

Accordingly, APP alternative splicing has been recognized for decades [36,37], but the underlying mechanism remained unclear. Our study provides a molecular handle on the regulation of APP splicing downstream of dysregulated TDP-43 in both ALS/FTLD-TDP- and AD.

Through mediation analysis, we show that TDP-43 pathology is associated with increased Aβ production, both directly and indirectly via shifting APP isoform towards APP751/770. This is consistent with previous

results from an AD mouse model, where injection of TDP-43 into the hippocampus increased amyloid

plaques and impaired spatial memory [132], and data from a small human cohort in which KPI(+)APP

correlated with neuritic plaque density [42]. In addition, previous *in vitro* results showed increased Aβ

production upon transfection with the longer APP isoforms compared to APP695 [133]. Together, our

discovery offers a molecular explanation for increased amyloid burden in TDP-43-positive AD cases [134,135].

Given that TDP-43 pathology is found in a significant subset of AD patients, this mechanism could have

broad implications for understanding and treating AD.

TDP-43-associated splicing pathology has been recently suggested to involve a loss-of-function

mechanism due to nuclear depletion [9,10,13,17]. Our data suggests a non-mutually exclusive role for toxic

cytoplasmic gain-of-function. We demonstrate that TDP-43 mislocalization does not necessarily disrupt

APP splicing directly, but rather due to sequestration of other splicing regulators, such as

SRSF5/TIAL1/SCAF11. This contrasts with STMN2 and UNC13A mis-splicing, which results directly from

nuclear TDP-43 depletion. The interplay between these two mechanisms highlights the complexity of TDP-

43 pathology. Future therapeutic strategies should consider targeting both nuclear restoration and

cytoplasmic toxicity to mitigate TDP-43-driven neurodegeneration.

Dysregulation of splicing regulators due to TDP-43 pathology provides a mechanistic explanation for

widespread splicing defects in neurodegenerative diseases. Loss of TDP-43 function through knockdown

or gain-of-function through mislocalization in culture, each explain about 15% of the mis-splicing

associated to TDP-43 pathology in ALS/FTLD-TDP postmortem tissue [54], suggesting that both mechanisms

can comparably contribute to splicing dysregulation downstream of TDP-43.

Furthermore, correction of splicing has been utilized as a therapeutic approach for spinal muscular

atrophy [136–138], and correction of STMN2 and UNC13A splicing is being developed as a potential

intervention strategy [139,140]. Therefore, redirecting APP splicing towards APP695 at the expense of

APP751/770 might be a justified therapeutic strategy as well.

Limitations: While our study provides strong evidence for TDP-43's role in APP splicing, several limitations

should be noted. Although we identify cytoplasmic splicing regulators co-sequestered with TDP-43, their

direct contributions to APP mis-splicing require further exploration. TIAL1 was shown to bind to APP

mRNA [141], which supports a function in APP splicing, but this was not demonstrated for SCAF11 and SRSF5

yet. Moreover, additional splice regulators not identified in this study may contribute to APP splicing

regulation. Furthermore, our proteomic analyses identified peptides specific to the longer APP isoforms,

but not to the APP695-specific peptide, which would enable a more complete protein-level analysis of

APP isoform ratios. The mechanism through which longer APP isoforms increase Aβ pathology also

remains to be investigated. Lastly, the TDP-43 pathology burden in the DLPFC in AD is typically lower

compared to other regions such as the amygdala and hippocampus [131,142,143]; thus, future studies might

benefit from including more TDP-43-enriched brain regions.

Our study identifies a novel mechanism linking TDP-43 pathology to APP alternative splicing and amyloid

pathology in AD and suggests that TDP-43 pathology is a unifying molecular feature linking seemingly

disparate neurodegenerative disorders. We provide evidence that TDP-43 mislocalization leads to

cytoplasmic sequestration of splicing regulators, driving an increase in APP751 and APP770 isoforms. This

mechanism underlying TDP-43 dysfunction suggests that ALS and FTD and amyloid-driven pathology in AD

may share common underlying molecular mechanisms. By establishing TDP-43 as an upstream regulator

of APP splicing, our findings offer new insights into the molecular convergence of neurodegenerative

diseases. Further work will be needed to determine whether these convergences occur early in the

evolution of these diseases or are a late common consequence of diverse causes of chronic CNS

neurodegeneration. Targeting this pathway may present novel therapeutic opportunities for both

ALS/FTLD-TDP and AD, highlighting the broader impact of splicing dysregulation in neurodegeneration.

535 **Supplementary Figures**

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Supplementary figure 1: Splicing aberrations downstream of TDP-43 pathology in human post-mortem tissue.

Schematic of the splice junctions detected by MAJIQ in **(A)** NCAM1 exons 13-14 and **(B)** KIDINS220 exons 24-27, and

corresponding percent spliced-in (PSI) values in ROSMAP AD versus control samples and samples with TDP-43

pathology (+TDP-43) versus those without (-TDP-43) [43]. Numbers in the schematic indicate canonically annotated

exons, and 'm' represents novel exons identified by MAJIQ. Median PSIs per group are indicated. P-values **** <

0.0001, *** < 0.001, ** < 0.01; Wilcoxon test. **(C)** Normalized APP isoforms expression levels, estimated with RSEM

[53,144], of APP695 (without exons 7 and 8) and APP770 (containing exons 7 and 8) in human post-mortem dorsolateral

prefrontal cortex (DLPFC), comparing samples without TDP-43 pathology to those with TDP-43 pathology. Lines

represent the mean with SD. P-values ****< 0.0001, ***< 0.001, *< 0.05; unpaired two-sided t-test. **(D)** Overlap in

mRNAs mis-spliced in TDP-43 depleted nuclei vs TDP-43-positive nuclei from post-mortem cortical tissue [54] and

mRNAs mis-spliced upon TDP-43 pathology in ROSMAP DLPFC samples.

Supplementary Figure 2: Validation of separation between nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions. (A) Relative LMNB1 and HDAC1 intensity in each of the fractions in either NES- or TDP-43$^{\text{deltaNLS}}$-expressing neurons. Gene ontology [60,61] cellular component analysis of the top 200 most nuclear **(B)** enriched or **(C)** depleted proteins.

Supplementary Figure 3: Subcellular distribution of TDP-43dNLS under different time points of sodium arsenite

stress. Immunostaining of neurons expressing TDP-43dNLS-V5-APEX in different time points after sodium arsenite

addition.

Supplementary Figure 4: Proximity labeling proteomics to map protein interactors of TDP-43^{deltaNLS}. (A) Volcano

plots of differential protein enrichment in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} samples versus NES samples, without (left) or with (right)

addition of sodium arsenite stress. TDP-43 is shown in red and factors associated with the Gene Ontology term

'splicing' in blue. **(B)** Gene ontology [173,174] molecular function analysis of proteins enriched in TDP-43^{deltaNLS} samples

versus NES samples.

Supplementary Figure 5: Validation of RBP knockdown by qPCR. Relative RNA fold change (FC) in knockdown (KD)

iPSCs compared to control.

Supplementary Figure 6: Alternative splicing of UNC13A upon SRSF5 and SUPT6H knockdown. (A) Output of MAJIQ

deltaPSI analysis comparing WT and **(A)** SRSF5 or **(B)** SUPT6H KD neurons, displaying the two events in UNC13A that

were significantly altered. Numbers indicate canonically annotated exons, and 'm' represents exons identified by

MAJIQ. P-values: * < 0.1, ** < 0.05.

Materials and methods

Published AD and ALS/FTLD-TDP datasets

For analysis of AD and control brain tissues with and without TDP-43 pathology, we included bulk RNA-

seq data from dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) samples from the Religious Orders Study and Rush

Memory and Aging Project (ROSMAP) [43] available in Synapse (syn3388564). All participants in ROSMAP

were enrolled without known dementia and agreed to annual clinical evaluation and brain donation. Both

studies were approved by an Institutional Review Board of Rush University Medical Center. Each

participant signed informed and repository consents and an Anatomic Gift Act. Raw bam files

(syn4164376) from 300 samples (150 with and 150 without TDP-43 pathology, to approximate the real

distribution in patients [19,20]) were used as input for splicing analysis described below. Normalized isoform-

level expression data (syn3505746) as determined by RSEM [53] from 505 samples was used as orthogonal

verification. When comparing samples without TDP-43 pathology to those with TDP-43 pathology, TDP-

43 stage (tdp_st4) was dichotomized as per RADC recommendation: no pathology = no TDP-43 pathology

or TDP-43 pathology in amygdala only (Stages 0 and 1); TDP-43 pathology = TDP-43 pathology extending

beyond amygdala (Stages 2 and 3) [145,146]. To compare the expression of APP isoforms, we applied a min–

max normalization, which scales expression values so that each isoform's minimum and maximum levels

correspond to 0 and 1, respectively. We then compared each isoform (APP695, APP751, APP770)

individually as well as the sum of the pathogenic isoforms (APP751 + APP770) relative to the canonical

APP695 isoform. For measurements of Aβ pathology, we used the RADC amylsqrt_est_8reg variable,

reflecting mean amyloid score across 8 brain regions [55,56].

Table 4: Demographics of ROSMAP subjects included in the various splicing analyses.

RSEM	Mean age at death	%Female	Mean education	% AD dementia	Total
No TDP	86	62	16.53	30.7	352
TDP	88	69.2	16.44	49.7	153
MAJIQ	**Mean age at death**	**%Female**	**Mean education**	**% TDP Pathology**	**Total**
control	86	61.6	16.37	15	201
MAJIQ	**Mean age at death**	**%Female**	**Mean education**	**% AD dementia**	**Total**
No TDP	87	58.6	16.8	29.3	150
TDP	91	68.6	16.4	49.3	150

Proteomic data of ROSMAP DLPFC tissues was generated as in [57,147].

For analysis of human autopsy brain tissues from ALS/FTLD-TDP patients, we used existing RNA-seq data

as published in [54]. Briefly, nuclei from mid-frontal neocortical brain tissue from 7 patients diagnosed with

FTLD-TDP (all carrying C9orf72 hexanucleotide repeat expansions) were isolated and stained for DAPI,

NeuN and TDP-43. Using flow cytometry, nuclei with pathological loss of TDP-43 were separated from

TDP-43-positive nuclei. Sorted nuclei were then subjected to RNA extraction and Illumina sequencing as

described [54].

Human iPSC culture

Human iPSCs were grown in mTeSR1 (STEMCELL Technologies, 85850) or mTeSR Plus (STEMCELL

Technologies, 100-0276) medium at 37°C with 5% CO2 on tissue culture dishes coated with Geltrex

(A1413302, Gibco) or Corning Matrigel (Sigma-Aldrich, CLS354277). Coating was done overnight or for at

least 1 hour at 37°C. Cell culture medium was exchanged daily (mTeSR1) or every two days (mTeSR Plus).

When reaching ~80% confluency, iPSCs were dissociated with accutase (ThermoFisher Scientific,

A1110501) and plated in mTeSR1 containing ROCK inhibitor Y-27632 (10 µM, Tocris Bioscience, 1254). For

freezing, cells were resuspended in mTeSR1 supplemented with 30% KnockOut Serum Replacement

(ThermoFisher Scientific, 1082802) and 10% DMSO.

Generation of knockdown iPSC lines

KOLF2.1J human iPSCs [148] were genetically edited with a BE3 cytidine base editor [111] as described

previously [149] with minor adjustments. Guide RNAs were designed with the CRISPR design tool in Benchling

to generate premature stop codons and cloned into the pKLV2 gRNA plasmid (Addgene plasmid #67974)

using Gibson assembly (NEB). DNA sequences of all guides and primers used for amplifying and sequencing

the target region are listed in **Supplementary Table 6**. For each gene target, the top off-target site was

amplified and sequenced to verify the absence of off-target edits (see **Supplementary Table 6** for primer

sequences). For transfection, 0.5 million iPSCs were seeded into a well of a 6-well plate. The next day,

medium was replaced with mTeSR1 supplemented with Rock inhibitor (10 µM). Per reaction, 1 µg of iBE3

CLYBL base editor plasmid (Addgene plasmid #174569) and 1 µg of guide plasmid were introduced with

TransfeX as described above. Cells were then incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 24 hours. The two days

after transfection, medium was replaced with medium containing puromycin (0.8 µg/ml) and doxycycline

(2 µg/ml) each day. On the third day post-transfection, cells were dissociated and seeded into a matrigel-

coated 96-well plate at a concentration of 1 cell per well through serial dilution. Cells were grown for ~2

weeks as described above until wells were full, with daily medium replacements with Rock inhibitor for

the first 2-3 days. After this, medium was replaced once every two days with mTeSR1 without Rock

inhibitor. When wells were confluent, single-cell colonies were transferred to a 24-well plate and grown

until confluent. Cells were then dissociated and a small amount of cell suspension was harvested in

ultrapure water for DNA sequencing before freezing the rest. Positive clones were expanded and the PG-

TO-hNGN2 plasmid was integrated into the genome as described above.

Differentiation of iPSCs to day 8 neurons

Differentiation was performed as described previously [98] with minor adjustments. Briefly, iPSCs were

cultured as detailed above and upon reaching 70%-80% confluency, cells were transferred to geltrex- or

matrigel-coated plates for differentiation. Cells were seeded in induction medium containing DMEM/F12

HEPES (Gibco, 11330032), N2 supplement (Gibco, 17502048), NEAA (Gibco, 11140050) and L-glutamine

(Gibco, 25030081), supplemented with ROCK inhibitor (Tocris Bioscience, 1254, 10 µM) and freshly

prepared doxycycline (DOX) solution (2 µg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich D9891). Based on plate size, either 1.5

million or 2.5 million iPSCs were seeded in a 10 or 15 cm dish respectively. Induction medium was replaced

daily with induction medium containing DOX for three days. On day 2, plates were coated with PDL (Sigma-

Aldrich P7405, 0.04mg/ml) overnight. On day 3, plates were washed twice with ultrapure water and dried

completely before seeding day 3 neurons per well in maturation medium containing BrainPhys (STEMCELL

Technologies, 05790), B27 supplement (Gibco, 17504044), BDNF (PeproTech, 450-02), NT3 (PeproTech,

450-03), Laminin (Gibco, 23017-015) and 40mM BrdU (Sigma-Aldrich, B9285). Neurons were matured

with half-medium replacements without BrdU every 2-3 days.

RNA-seq and splicing analysis

RNA was extracted using the miRNeasy Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol before

measuring RNA concentration with a Nanodrop spectrophotometer. RNA-seq libraries were prepared at

the Crown Genomics institute of the Nancy and Stephen Grand Israel National Center for Personalized

Medicine, Weizmann Institute of Science. Libraries were prepared using the TruSeq Stranded mRNA-seq

kit (Illumina) according to the manufacturing protocol. Briefly, the polyA fraction (mRNA) was purified

from 500 ng of total input RNA followed by fragmentation and the generation of double-stranded cDNA.

After Agencourt Ampure XP beads cleanup (Beckman Coulter), A base addition, adapter ligation and PCR

amplification steps were performed. Libraries were quantified by Qubit (Thermo fisher scientific) and

TapeStation (Agilent). Sequencing was done on Novaseq 6000 S1 300 cycles kit or Novaseq X 1.5B 300

cycles kit, allocating ~50-60M reads per sample (Illumina; paired end sequencing). In the case of TDP-

43[deltaNLS] and NES samples, sequencing was done with NextSeq high output kit, 75 cycles, allocating ~20M

reads per sample (Illumina; single-end sequencing).

Poly-A/T stretches and Illumina adapters were trimmed from RNA sequencing reads using cutadapt [150];

resulting reads shorter than 30bp were discarded. Reads - both those experimentally generated and those

from published datasets [10,54,58] - were mapped to the H. sapiens reference genome GRCh38 using STAR [151],

supplied with gene annotations downloaded from Ensembl (and with EndToEnd option and

outFilterMismatchNoverLmax was set to 0.04). Reads with the same UMI were removed using the PICARD

MarkDuplicate tool using the BARCODE_TAG parameter. Pipeline was run using snakemake [152].

Aligned BAMs were used as input for differential splicing analysis with MAJIQ (v2.5.7) [45] using reference

genome GRCh38. A deltaPSI threshold of 2% and probability changing threshold of 0.9 was used to

calculate the probability of splicing changes between groups. The RNAseq of RBP KD lines was done in

several batches (each time including the control line), so for visualization of APP splice events in **Figure**

5D, MAJIQ PSI values were normalized against the corresponding control. For analysis of ROSMAP data,

the MAJIQ heterogen function was used to compare between groups and a P-value threshold of 0.05 was

maintained. The voila tsv output tables were parsed using an adjusted version of the R script from [10] (see

Code Availability) to obtain values per junction instead of per junction cluster. P-values of deltaPSI

analyses were calculated as *1 - probability changing*.

Cellular fractionation

Monoclonal iPSC lines carrying APEX constructs mentioned above were differentiated into cortical

neurons as described previously. After 5 days of maturation, construct expression was induced for 24 and

4 hours respectively to achieve comparable levels of expression. Cells were washed with PBS once before

scraping in lysis buffer A (10 mM Tris Cl, pH 7.5; 10 mM NaCl; 3 mM MgCl2; 0.5% NP40) supplemented

with cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche, 4693116001) and PhosSTOP (Roche, 4906837001).

Lysates were incubated on ice for 10 min while vortexing every few minutes, followed by centrifugation

for 10 min at 4**°**C at maximum speed to precipitate nuclei. After transferring the supernatant (the

cytoplasmic fraction) to a new tube, nuclei pellets were repeatedly washed with lysis buffer A via

centrifugation for 10 min at 4**°**C at maximum speed until resuspension was impossible. RIPA buffer (150

mM NaCl; 1% NP40; 0.5% deoxycholate (DOC); 0.1% SDS and 50 mM Tris, pH 8) was added to nuclei pellets

before sonication for 3 cycles x 10 sec with 20 sec intervals, using 30-40% power. Samples were

centrifuged for 10 min at 4°C at maximum speed to gain nuclear fractions (the supernatant).

Sample preparation for proteomic analysis

Nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions were subjected to in-solution tryptic digestion using the suspension

trapping (S-trap) method as previously described [153]. Briefly, fraction lysates were incubated at 96°C for 5

min, followed by six cycles of 30 s of sonication (Bioruptor Pico, Diagenode, USA). Protein concentration

was measured using the BCA assay (Thermo Scientific, USA). From each sample 20ug of total protein were

reduced with 5 mM dithiothreitol and alkylated with 10 mM iodoacetamide in the dark. Each sample was

loaded onto S-Trap microcolumns (Protifi, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. After

loading, samples were washed with 90:10% methanol/50 mM ammonium bicarbonate. Samples were

then digested with trypsin (1:50 trypsin:protein ratio) for 1.5 h at 47°C. The digested peptides were eluted

using 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate. Trypsin (1:50 trypsin:protein ratio) was added to this fraction and

incubated overnight at 37°C. Two more elutions were made using 0.2% formic acid and 0.2% formic acid

in 50% acetonitrile. The three elutions were pooled together and vacuum-centrifuged to dryness. Samples

were resuspended in H2O with 0.1% formic acid and subjected to solid phase extraction (Oasis HLB,

Waters, Milford, MA, USA) according to manufacturer instructions and vacuum-centrifuged to dryness.

Samples were kept at−80°C until further analysis.

Liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry

ULC/MS grade solvents were used for all chromatographic steps. Dry digested samples were dissolved in

97:3% H2O/acetonitrile + 0.1% formic acid. Each sample was loaded using split-less nano-Ultra

Performance Liquid Chromatography (10 kpsi nanoAcquity; Waters, Milford, MA, USA). The mobile phase

was: A) H2O + 0.1% formic acid and B) acetonitrile + 0.1% formic acid. Desalting of the samples was

performed online using a reversed-phase Symmetry C18 trapping column (180 μm internal diameter, 20

mm length, 5 μm particle size; Waters). The peptides were then separated using a T3 HSS nano-column

(75 μm internal diameter, 250 mm length, 1.8 μm particle size; Waters) at 0.35 μL/min. Peptides were

eluted from the column into the mass spectrometer using the following gradient: 4% to 30%B in 105 min,

30% to 90%B in 10 min, maintained at 90% for 7 min and then back to initial conditions.

The nanoUPLC was coupled online through a nanoESI emitter (10 µm tip; New Objective; Woburn, MA,
USA) to a quadrupole orbitrap mass spectrometer (Exploris 480, Thermo Scientific) using a FlexIon
nanospray apparatus (Proxeon). Data was acquired in data dependent acquisition (DDA) mode, using a 2-
seconds cycle time method. MS1 resolution was set to 120,000 (at 200m/z), mass range of 380-1500m/z,
AGC of 200% and maximum injection time was set to 50msec. MS2 resolution was set to 15,000,
quadrupole isolation 1.4m/z, AGC set to custom, dynamic exclusion of 40sec and maximum injection time
set to auto.

Raw proteomic data analysis

Raw data was analyzed using MaxQuant (v1.6.6.0) [154]. The data was searched with the Andromeda search
engine against the human (Homo sapiens) protein databases as downloaded from Uniprot
(www.uniprot.com), appended with common lab protein contaminants. Enzyme specificity was set to
trypsin and up to two missed cleavages were allowed. Fixed modification was set to
carbamidomethylation of cysteines. Variable modifications were set to oxidation of methionines, and
protein N-terminal acetylation. Peptide precursor ions were searched with a maximum mass deviation of
4.5 ppm and fragment ions with a maximum mass deviation of 20 ppm. Peptide and protein identifications
were filtered at an FDR of 1% using the decoy database strategy (MaxQuant's "Revert" module). The
minimal peptide length was 7 amino-acids and the minimum Andromeda score for modified peptides was
40. Peptide identifications were propagated across samples using the match-between-runs option
checked. Searches were performed with the label-free quantification option selected.

Proteomics statistical analysis

MaxQuant output table ProteinGroups was imported to Perseus and analyzed as follows. Reverse
proteins, proteins identified only based on a modified peptide and contaminants were excluded before
log2-transforming the data. Rows were filtered to keep only those with at least 6 valid values, and missing
values were replaced by low values from a normal distribution. Two-sample t-test comparing samples
with biotin to samples without biotin was performed to remove non-specific binders (FDR < 0.05, log2FC
> 0). Samples were separated based on stress condition before filtering to remain only those proteins with
a minimum of 2 valid values in at least one experimental group (TDP-43^{deltaNLS} or NES). Missing values were
imputed again using a normal distribution. Two-sample t-test using log2-transformed LFQ values was
performed to gain proteins enriched in TDP-43^{deltaNLS}.

RNA Extraction and cDNA Synthesis

RNA was extracted from day 8 differentiated cells using the miRNeasy MicroKit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The RNA concentration was measured using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer, and 500 ng of RNA was used for reverse transcription. First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo, catalog number 4368814) in accordance with the respective manufacturer's instructions.

RT-PCR

PCR amplification was carried out using the RedTaq Ready Mix PCR Reaction Mix (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog number R2523), which contains RedTaq DNA polymerase, dNTPs, buffer, and magnesium chloride in a pre-mixed, ready-to-use format. The PCR reaction was prepared by combining the following components: 1X final concentration of RedTaq Ready Mix, gene-specific forward and reverse primers, cDNA template, and nuclease-free water to a final reaction volume. For amplification of APP770 specifically, the following primers were used: CCCATTCTTTTACGGCGGATG and AACAGGATCTCGGGCAAGAGG. To amplify the region between exons 6 and 9, primers TCTGTGGAAGAGGTGGTTCG and GGCCTCAAGCCTCTCTTTGG were used. PCR amplification was performed under the following conditions: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes, followed by 28 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 seconds, primer-specific annealing at the appropriate temperature for 30 seconds, and extension at 72°C for 1 minute. A final extension step was performed at 72°C for 5 minutes. Following amplification, PCR products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis using a 1.8% agarose gel. The PCR products were loaded onto the gel, and electrophoresis was carried out at 120V for approximately 1 hour. The bands were visualized under UV light to confirm the presence and size of the amplified products.

Immunofluorescence and imaging

Differentiation of iPSCs into cortical neurons was done as described above; on day 3, approximately 60,000 neurons were seeded per well of a 96-well plate (Brooks, MGB096-1-2-LG-L). Neurons were fixed on day 8 in 4% PFA in 1X PBS++ for approximately 15 minutes. After one wash with PBS, cells were incubated in 0.1% TritonX in PBS for permeabilization for 10-15 minutes followed by blocking with CasBlock reagent for 10 minutes at room temperature (RT). Primary antibodies (purified anti-β-Amyloid 1-16 Antibody, BioLegend 803004; Thioflavine S, Sigma-Aldrich T1892; anti-Amyloid Precursor Protein, Sigma-Aldrich A8717) were diluted in CasBlock and 75 μl of this mix was added to each well for overnight incubation at 4°C. The next day, cells were washed in PBS twice for 5 minutes. Anti-mouse Cy5 secondary

antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch 715-175-150) was diluted in PBS before incubation with 75 µl per well

for 1 hour at RT in the dark. For DNA staining, Hoechst (ThermoFisher 62249, diluted 1:8000 in PBS) was

added to the cells after one PBS wash for 10-30 minutes at RT. The Hoechst solution was replaced with

PBS before proceeding with imaging. Confocal images were acquired on the Opera Phenix Plus High-

Content Imaging System.

Image quantification

A specific CellProfiler (version 4.2.1) [155,156] pipeline was built for quantification of beta-amyloid and

thioflavin intensity. First, nuclei were detected with IdentifyPrimaryObject and used as input for

Secondary Object identification using the Thioflavin S signal, which was distributed throughout the entire

cell. The cytoplasm was demarcated with IdentifyTertiaryObjects by subtracting the nucleus from the

Thioflavin S signal. Amyloid and Thioflavin S intensity were measured in the cytoplasm and averaged

across cells per image before plotting and statistical testing in Prism (version 10).

Quantification of puncta was performed using Harmony (version 5.2). Nuclei were segmented from the

Hoechst channel using the "Find Nuclei" building block, with parameters optimized to accurately detect

individual nuclei. The cytoplasm was then delineated using the "Find Cytoplasm" building block, which

expanded outward from the nuclear boundary by utilizing the Cy3 channel, which detects amyloid

precursor protein (APP), to generate a whole-cell mask.

Beta-amyloid and/or Thioflavin S puncta were identified using the "Find Spots" building block in the

respective channels. Spot detection parameters, including spot size range and intensity thresholds, were

optimized to capture distinct punctate structures while minimizing background noise. For puncta analysis,

point intensities were measured on a per-spot basis. The output data, including total puncta count and

the number of cells, were exported from Harmony. The number of puncta was then normalized to the

number of cells, providing a puncta-to-cell ratio for each field of view.

Mediation analysis

Mediation analysis was conducted to examine whether APP mediates the relationship between TDP-43

pathology and amyloid-β pathology. When modeling different isoforms of APP into a single ratio variable

(e.g., APP571+APP7701+APP695), each APP isoform underwent min-max scaling before computing the

sum/ratio. The total, direct, and indirect effects were estimated using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

regression models (**Table 3**). First, we assessed the effect of TDP-43 on APP (path a). Next, we examined

the effect of APP on amyloid-β while controlling for TDP-43 (path b). The total effect (c) of TDP-43 on

amyloid-β was decomposed into the direct effect (c', TDP-43's effect on amyloid-β independent of APP)

and the indirect effect (a × b), representing mediation. To test the statistical significance of the indirect

effect, we used bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals (95% CI) with n = 1,000 resamples. The

proportion of the total effect mediated was computed as abc. All statistical analyses were performed in

Python 3.6 using the statsmodels package, and results were considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

Code availability

Code for running MAJIQ and plotting the results can be found on our Github page:

https://github.com/WelmoedVZ/splicing.git

Data availability

Proximity labeling proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the

PRIDE [157] partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD063021.

Reviewer access details: Log in to the PRIDE website using the following details:

Project accession: PXD063021

Token: D4CuJoBtiplr

Alternatively, reviewer can access the dataset by logging in to the PRIDE website using the following

account details:

Username: reviewer_pxd063021@ebi.ac.uk

Password: mWEo5AKvWcaS

Similarly, fractionation mass spectrometry data is available in ProteomeXchange under PXD063188.

Reviewer access details: Log in to the PRIDE website using the following details:

Project accession: PXD063188

Token: CIWLhWEMDidP

Alternatively, reviewer can access the dataset by logging in to the PRIDE website using the following

account details:

Username: reviewer_pxd063188@ebi.ac.uk

Password: Rmq1hfujAb4N

Raw RNA-seq data are available in Sequence Read Archive under accession number PRJNA1255884.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank Michael Ward (NINDS, NIH) and Bill Skarnes (Jackson labs) for access to iPSC lines. We

thank Alon Savidor (WIS) and Yishai Levin (WIS) for mass spectrometry, and Inbal Bolocan Nachman (WIS)

and Yuval Elazari (WIS) for RNA sequencing. We also thank Noa Wigoda (WIS), Melina Klostermann (Julius-

Maximilians-Universität Würzburg) and the BioCiphers team for bioinformatics advice. To Prof. Naomi

Habib and Anael Cain (HUJI) we are grateful for advice and discussions. We thank Anna-Leigh Brown (UCL),

Jack Humphrey (MSSM) and Pietro Fratta (UCL) for advice on splicing.

EH is the Mondry Family Professorial Chair and Head of the Andrea L. and Lawrence A. Wolfe Family Center

for Research on Neuroimmunology and Neuromodulation. Funding for research: Binational Science

Foundation (BSF); Association Francaise Contre les Myopathies (AFM); Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis

Association (ALSA); Target ALS; Israel Science Foundation (ISF 3497/21, 424/22, 494/24); ALS Canada;

Minna-James-Heineman Stiftung through Minerva, Minerva Foundation, with funding from the Federal

German Ministry for Education and Research; Robert Packard Center for ALS Research at Johns Hopkins;

McGill University; EU - ERA-Net; Radala Foundation for ALS Research; Additional support generously

provided by the Kekst Family Institute for Medical Genetics. Weizmann SABRA - Yeda-Sela - WRC Program,

the Estate of Emile Mimran, and The Maurice and Vivienne Wohl Biology Endowment. Nella and Leon

Benoziyo Center for Neurological Diseases. Goldhirsh-Yellin Foundation. Dr. Sydney Brenner and friends.

Weizmann - Center for Research on Neurodegeneration. Redhill Foundation – Sam and Jean Rothberg

Charitable Trust Dr. Dvora and Haim Teitelbaum Endowment Fund. LM is funded by a Minerva

Postdoctoral Fellowship. YDM is funded by the Weizmann - CNRS (Centre National de la Recherche

Scientifique) Collaboration Program.

ROSMAP is supported by P30AG10161, P30AG72975, R01AG15819, R01AG17917, U01AG46152, and

U01AG61356. ROSMAP resources can be requested at https://www.radc.rush.edu and www.synpase.org.

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