cis-Regulatory Chromatin Contacts in Neural Cells Reveal Contributions of Genetic Variants to Complex Neurological Disorders

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Abstract

Mutations in gene regulatory elements have been associated with a wide range of neurological disorders.

However, due to their inherent cell type specificity and difficulties in characterizing their regulatory

targets, our ability to identify causal genetic variants has remained limited. To address these constraints,

we perform integrative analysis of chromatin interactions (promoter capture Hi-C), open chromatin

regions (ATAC-seq), and transcriptomes (RNA-seq) in four functionally distinct cell types associated

with neurological disorders: iPSC-induced cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal dentate gyrus (DG)-

like neurons, lower motor neurons, and human primary fetal astrocytes. We identify hundreds of

thousands of cell type-specific, long-range *cis* interactions between promoters and distal promoter-

interacting regions (PIRs), enabling us to link regulatory elements to their target genes and identify

putative pathways that are dysregulated in disease. Finally, we perform validation of novel PIRs linked

to neuronal function using CRISPR/Cas9 editing in human neurons, demonstrating downregulation of

CDK5RAP3, *STRAP*, and *DRD2* upon knockdown of their corresponding enhancers. Our study

demonstrates how *cis*-regulatory interactions in human neural cells can be used to elucidate the

contribution of genetic variants to complex neurological disorders.

Introduction

A large number of genetic variations associated with diverse human traits and diseases are located in

putative regulatory regions. Genetic lesions in these regulatory elements can contribute to complex

human disease by modulating gene expression and disrupting finely tuned transcriptional networks in

development and function. However, deciphering the roles of regulatory variants in disease pathogenesis

remains nontrivial due to lack of annotation for regulatory sequences in the physiologically relevant cell

types. Furthermore, *cis*-regulatory elements often interact with their cognate genes over long genomic

distances, precluding a systematic mapping of promoter and regulatory element connectivity. As a

result, our ability to derive biological insights from noncoding variants in genome wide association

studies (GWAS) has remained limited. Typically, neighboring genes are assigned as risk loci for

noncoding variants. However, this nearest gene model is challenged by both experimental and

computational evidence[1,2]. For instance, two independent obesity-associated SNPs in the *FTO* gene have

been shown not to regulate *FTO*, but *IRX3* in the human brain and both *IRX3* and *IRX5* in adipocytes,

respectively[3,4]. The *FTO* locus in obesity illustrates the potential complexity and cell type specificity in

how noncoding variants contribute to disease. However, such well-annotated cases are rare, and we still

lack a systematic annotation of GWAS SNPs to their regulatory targets, especially in the context of

complex neurological disorders. Previous epigenomic annotations of the germinal zone (GZ) and

cortical and subcortical plate (CP) in the human brain revealed the importance of 3D chromatin structure

in gene regulation and disease[5,6]. However, these studies utilized complex, heterogeneous tissues,

limiting their ability to interpret genome regulation and function in a cell type-specific manner.

Therefore, mapping the epigenomic landscape and 3D chromatin structure in physiologically relevant,

constitutive, and widely used cell types should offer significant advantages for prioritizing causal

variants, interpreting their contributions to complex neurological disorders, and discovering novel

treatments and biomarkers for improving patient care.

Towards this goal, we used wild type human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) from the WTC11

line to generate three subtype-specific neuronal lineages: cortical excitatory neurons[7], hippocampal

dentate gyrus (DG)-like neurons[8], and lower motor neurons. Normal GFAP-positive fetal astrocytes

derived from two individuals were also included for their relevance to human brain development and

disease. By performing integrative analysis of promoter-centric, long-range chromatin interactions using

promoter capture Hi-C (pcHi-C), open chromatin regions using ATAC-seq, and transcriptomes using

RNA-seq, we define maps of promoters and distal promoter-interacting regions (PIRs) across each of

the four cell types. We show that PIRs are not only highly cell type-specific, but they are also enriched

for regulatory chromatin signatures including open chromatin regions, active chromatin states such as

enhancers, and eQTLs. In addition, our interactions with PIRs recover 34.4% of *in vivo*-validated

enhancer elements on the VISTA Enhancer Browser[9] and reveal novel insights into their gene targets.

We find that neurological disorder-associated SNPs from genome wide association studies exhibit

differential enrichment at PIRs across the four cell types, suggesting distinct roles in disease

pathophysiology for the neuronal subtypes and astrocytes. Finally, we use CRISPR/Cas9 editing to

knock out several disease-associated or cell type-specific regulatory loci at PIRs interacting with the

promoters of *STRAP*, *DRD2,* and *CDK5RAP3*, all of which exhibit significant downregulation in

response to the genomic perturbations. In summary, our study presents a roadmap for the comprehensive

annotation of human cell type-specific PIRs in the CNS, and it advances our ability to elucidate novel

biological mechanisms by which noncoding variants contribute to complex neurological disorders.

Results

Characterizing the epigenomic landscape of long-range chromatin interactions in human brain cells

To study the general features of the epigenomic landscape and 3D chromatin structure for specific cell types in the human CNS, we focused on isogenic, iPSC-induced cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-like neurons, and lower motor neurons, three functionally distinct neuronal subtypes which are currently impractical to isolate *in vivo*. Cortical excitatory neurons were induced from a wild type male iPSC line (WTC11) containing an integrated, isogenic, and inducible neurogenin-2 (Ngn2) cassette (i^{3}N iPSCs) with doxycycline-inducible mouse Ngn2 integrated at the AAVS1 safe-harbor locus[7]. The i^{3}N iPSCs enabled us to obtain homogenous human cortical excitatory neurons in culture after two weeks. For our epigenomic characterizations, we used eight-week-old neurons which were positive for the cortical neuron markers CUX1 and FOXG1 as well as the glutamatergic neuron marker VGluT1[10]. In addition, whole-cell patch-clamp recordings and CNQX blocking confirmed the presence of functional glutamatergic synaptic transmissions in these neurons[7] (**Supplementary Fig. 1A**). Hippocampal DG-like neurons were differentiated from the WTC11 line using defined factors modified from an established protocol[8,11] and exhibited marked expression for the DG granule cell marker PROX1 (**Supplementary Fig. 1A**). Lower motor neurons (LMN) were induced from a WTC11 line containing integrated, isogenic, and inducible copies of NGN2, ISL1, and LHX3 with doxycycline-inducible mouse Ngn2 integrated at the AAVS1 safe-harbor locus (i^{3}LMN iPSCs)[12]. These induced cells exhibited homogenous expression of the lower motor neuron markers HB9 and SMI32 (**Supplementary Fig. 1A**). In addition to these three neuronal subtypes, we used two batches of primary fetal astrocytes passaged once *in vitro* and isolated from two nineteen week, gastrulating male fetal brain samples utilizing GFAP as a marker (ScienCells). Based on the donor's age, as well as transcriptional signatures for dozens of marker genes distinguishing astrocyte progenitor cells (APCs) from mature astrocytes (e.g. low expression of the mature astrocyte markers *AGXT2L1* and *WIF1* and high expression of the APC markers *TOP2A* and *TNC*[13]) (**Supplementary Fig. 1b**), the astrocytes were determined to most likely be APCs. Detailed staining and characterization results for the four cell types used in this study are available in **Supplementary Fig. 1A**. We constructed pcHi-C, ATAC-seq, and RNA-seq libraries from two or three biological replicates for each of these cell types (**Supplementary Table 1**) and performed integrative analysis on the resulting datasets (**Fig. 1a**). To map promoter-centric, long-range chromatin interactions, we performed pcHi-C using a set of 280,445 unique RNA probes targeting the promoters of

19,603 coding genes and 3,311 noncoding RNAs in the GENCODE 19 annotation (see Jung et al., under

revision). Using CHiCAGO[14], we identified significant chromatin interactions with scores ≥ 5 over a

total of 195,322 unique interacting bin pairs across the four cell types, with 73,890, 108,156, 66,978, and

84,087 significant interactions being represented in the cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-

like neurons, lower motor neurons, and fetal astrocytes, respectively (**Supplementary Table 2**). Since

topologically associated domains (TADs) have been shown to impose physical boundaries for promoter-

enhancer interactions, we first determined whether significant interactions in these neural cell types were

similarly restricted by TAD structure. We found that approximately 98% of detected interactions resided

within TADs as annotated using HiC datasets in human fetal brain tissue[6] (**Fig. 2b**). Overall, 83.9% of

coding gene promoters and 31.9% of noncoding RNA promoters in the GENCODE 19 annotation

participate in interactions for at least one cell type, with a total of 17,065 coding gene promoters (12,722

in cortical excitatory neurons, 16,021 in hippocampal DG-like neurons, 12,538 in lower motor neurons,

and 12,741 in fetal astrocytes) participating in interactions, and with 80% of the PIRs interacting within

a distance of 160 kb (**Fig. 1c, Supplementary Fig. 1c and Supplementary Fig. 2a**). Approximately

40% of interactions occur between promoters (promoter-promoter interactions), while the remaining

60% occur between promoter- and non-promoter-containing bins (**Fig. 1d**). The observed numbers of

promoter-promoter interactions can likely be attributed to transcriptional factories of co-regulated genes,

widespread co-localization of promoter sequences[15,16] and the fact that many promoter sequences can

doubly function as enhancers[17,18]. Finally, between 20 to 40% of distal ATAC-seq peaks at PIRs are cell

type-specific (**Fig. 1e**), indicating the potential for PIRs to orchestrate cell type-specific gene regulation

at open chromatin regions, and with fetal astrocytes harboring the largest proportion of cell type-specific

distal ATAC-seq peaks, a feature likely attributable to their non-neuronal lineage.

We observed that promoters often participated in interactions with more than one PIR (**Fig. 2a**). This

observation is consistent with the large number of regulatory elements in the human genome[19] and

previous findings that each promoter can be regulated by multiple enhancers[20]. To examine global

chromatin signatures at PIRs, we took advantage of publicly available ChromHMM[21] inferred chromatin

states from the Roadmap Epigenomics Project[22] in matched human brain tissues for three of our cell

types (dorsolateral prefrontal cortex for cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampus for hippocampal DG-

like neurons, and normal human astrocytes for fetal astrocytes). We show that PIRs are highly enriched

for active chromatin features including ATAC-seq peaks, enhancers, and transcriptional start sites

(TSSs), while simultaneously exhibiting depletion or lack of enrichment for the repressive

heterochromatin state (**Fig. 2b**). Next, we determined whether interactions with active or repressive

chromatin features could influence the activity of interacting promoters by performing global expression

analysis for promoters interacting with PIRs localized with either enhancer or repressive states. We

show that promoters interacting with enhancer-PIRs exhibit significantly increased levels of

transcription relative to promoters interacting with repressive-PIRs (two sample t-test, one-sided, $p<10^{-60}$)

(**Fig. 2c, Supplementary Fig. 2b**). Since multiple enhancers can interact with and regulate the same

promoter, we next asked whether interactions with multiple enhancer-PIRs could present evidence for

additive effects on transcription. To address this question, we grouped genes according to the numbers

of interactions their promoters formed with enhancer-PIRs in each cell type and discovered a positive

correlation between the number of enhancer-PIR interactions and the mean expression level in each

group (linear regression, $p=0.0026$) (**Fig. 2d, Supplementary Fig. 2c**). These results demonstrate that

integrative analysis of pcHi-C, ATAC-seq, and RNA-seq data can identify long-range, regulatory

chromatin interactions that are enriched for active regulatory features, and these regulatory sequences

are capable of modulating gene expression in a cell type-specific manner.

Cell type-specific PIRs contribute to cellular identity

We find our significant interactions between promoters and PIRs to be cell type-specific, with a total of

12,254, 29,875, 6,757, and 11,424 interactions that are specific to cortical excitatory neurons,

hippocampal DG-like neurons, lower motor neurons, and fetal astrocytes, respectively (**Supplementary**

Fig. 3a). Meanwhile, 58,809 or 30.1% of all unique interactions are shared between all neural cell types.

For example, interactions between the promoter of *GRIN2B* and its own intron were found to occur only

in hippocampal DG-like neurons (**Supplementary Fig. 3b**). In addition, *GRIN2B*, which encodes a

subunit of the NMDA receptor ion channel and whose disruption is associated with mental retardation

and epilepsy[23], was not expressed in the other three cell types. In conjunction with the observed

enrichment of active chromatin states at PIRs, these cell type-specific aspects of promoter-PIR

interactions suggest lineage-specific regulatory roles for PIRs. We also suspected that PIRs could be

used to establish cellular identity. To explore this idea, we performed hierarchical clustering based on

the mean interaction scores at each interacting promoter-PIR loci. We show that PIR interactions can

reliably group cell types according to their cellular identity and function, with the three neuronal

lineages clustering together more tightly than with the fetal astrocytes (**Fig. 3a**). These cell type-specific

interactions are enriched for at the promoters of key genes that recapitulate important biological

pathways. For example, CHAT is a principal marker for lower motor neuron maturity and function, and

its expression was not only observed to be the highest in lower motor neurons, but cell type-specific

interactions were also observed bridging the *CHAT* promoter and distal open chromatin loci with

potential regulatory functions (**Supplementary Fig. 3b**).

Gene regulation is coordinately controlled by both transcription factors (TFs) and cis-regulatory

elements. Therefore, PIRs identified in interactions for each cell type provide a unique opportunity to

investigate potential mechanisms driving cell type-specific gene regulation. We collected cell type-

specific distal open chromatin peaks at PIRs for each cell type and used HOMER[24] to systematically

evaluate TF motif enrichment in the set of putative regulatory open chromatin loci for each cell type. We

report the most highly enriched TF motifs across all cell types along with the expression levels of their

corresponding TFs (**Fig. 3b**). The CTCF motif is highly enriched in all cell types, consistent with its role

to mediate proper looping between promoters and distal regulatory elements[25-28]. Other TF motifs

display various patterns of cell type-specific enrichment and expression, with motifs for NEUROG2 and

the RFX factors enriched for in the excitatory neuronal lineages, and NKX6-1 enriched across all three

neuronal cell types. Other neurologically relevant TFs involved in cell fate determination include CUX2

and HNF6, which are enriched for in cortical excitatory neurons and lower motor neurons, ISL1 in lower

motor neurons, and the RUNX and TEAD families which are enriched for in fetal astrocytes. In

addition, the motif for TBR1 is enriched in hippocampal DG-like neurons, which is consistent with its

established role in NMDA receptor assembly to drive long term potentiation and maintain plasticity in

the hippocampus. Motif enrichment is not always correlated with the expression of the corresponding

TFs, which may reflect synergistic interactions between cell types in the complex, heterogeneous tissues

of the human brain. For example, NRF2 is a crucial regulator of the oxidative stress response, and its

activity has been shown to be repressed in neurons while also inducing a strong response in astrocytes[29].

Therefore, its shared expression across all cell types may reflect the supportive, neuroprotective role that

astrocytes provide for neurons and the specialization of cellular functions in the human brain.

Alternatively, TFs do not have to be expressed at high levels to perform their cellular functions due to

the existence of additional avenues for regulation at the post-transcriptional and protein levels. Overall,

our results demonstrate that PIRs contribute to cell type-specific functions and have the capacities both

to recapitulate known and to reveal novel regulators.

In vivo validation of PIRs and linking enhancer elements to their target genes

Regulation of target genes by enhancers and regulatory elements is thought to be mediated by physical chromatin looping. Congruent with this concept, interactions detected by pcHi-C have the potential to link enhancer elements to their target genes. The VISTA Enhancer Browser is a database containing experimentally validated human and mouse noncoding sequences with enhancer activities. To date, it contains 2,845 tested elements, 1,574 of which exhibited positive enhancer activity during embryonic development[9]. However, the regulatory targets for these validated enhancer elements are largely not known. To address this knowledge gap, we provide detailed, cell type-specific annotations of putative target genes for each positive enhancer element based on our significant promoter-PIR interactions (**Supplementary Table 3**). In total, our interactions recover 532 of 1,547 or 34.4% of *in vivo* validated enhancer elements with human sequences, and 331 of which were further annotated as neural enhancers according to tissue-specific patterns of LacZ staining in mouse embryos (**Fig. 4a**). Of the 532 positive enhancer elements at PIRs that were found to interact with promoters, 134 were found to interact with their nearest neighboring genes, whereas another 230 interacted exclusively with more distal genes (**Fig. 4b**). (The 168 remaining elements were too close to their nearest neighboring genes to reliably resolve interactions.) Therefore, while only 25% of the validated elements were found to interact with their nearest neighboring genes, we were able to utilize pcHi-C data to identify an additional 827 cell type-specific regulatory targets for the group of 532 positive enhancer elements at PIRs.

Validation of PIRs detected in human brain cells using CRISPR

To validate that the PIRs we detected were indeed regulating the expression of their cognate genes, even across long distances, we performed CRISPRi experiments in i[3]N iPSC-induced neurons to determine if targeting the distal regulatory element would influence gene expression. We also used an orthogonal technique in CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing to delete PIRs in i[3]N iPSCs, followed by differentiation of the i[3]N iPSCs into cortical excitatory neurons and quantification of any differences in gene expression relative to the wild type by qPCR. Two of the PIRs located in an intergenic region on chromosome 17 were found to physically interact over 30 kb away with the promoter of *CDK5RAP3* in cortical excitatory neurons (**Fig. 4c**). CDK5RAP3 is a potential regulator of CDK5, which plays a role in neuronal differentiation and migration[30] and regulates cell proliferation in non-neuronal cells[31]. Interestingly, one of the two interacting PIRs was found to overlap a positively annotated 6 kb brain

enhancer element (*mm999*) from the VISTA Enhancer Browser, for which no knowledge of the target
gene was previously available. Both the deletion and CRISPRi targeting of an of a 2 kb open chromatin
peak (region #1) within the enhancer sequence resulted in significant down-regulation of *CDK5RAP3*
expression in human cortical excitatory neurons (two sample t-test, two-sided, $p=7.7\times10^{-7}$), but not the
neighboring genes (**Fig. 4c** and **Supplementary Fig. 3c**). When we tried to delete the other PIR for the
CDK5RAP3 promoter (region #2), we observed massive cell death of iPSCs immediately following
introduction of the Cas9-sgRNA protein complex. Among the cells that survived the transfection, we
picked 48 individual clones but failed to isolate any clones with deletions, suggesting that this region is
required for maintaining *CDK5RAP3* expression in iPSCs, consistent with *CDK5RAP3*'s role in
promoting cell survival.

Cell type-specific enrichment and identification of novel target genes for neurological disorder-
associated variants

Previous large-scale epigenomic studies in human tissues and cell lines highlighted the importance of
disease-associated variants at distal regulatory regions[22] and the need for high-throughput approaches to
prioritize variants for further validation. We used our physical chromatin interaction data to annotate
genes targeted by noncoding GWAS SNPs in a cell type-specific manner. We downloaded a total of
3,362 tag SNPs from the GWAS Catalog at a significance threshold of 10^{-6} for ten neurological
disorders including Alzheimer's disease (AD), attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD),
amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), autism spectrum disorder (ASD), bipolar disorder (BP), epilepsy
(EP), frontotemporal dementia (FTD), Parkinson's disease (PD), schizophrenia (SCZ), and unipolar
depression (UD)[32]. Tag SNPs reported in the studies were imputed at a linkage disequilibrium (LD)
threshold of 0.8 using HaploReg[33] and filtered to obtain a total of 36,728 noncoding SNP loci across all
disorders (**Supplementary Table 4**). We found the imputed SNPs to be enriched for in our significant
PIRs compared with shuffled distance-matched PIRs in both a disease- and cell type-specific manner
(**Fig. 5a**). While PIRs for all four cell types exhibit moderate to high levels of enrichment for SNPs in
ADHD, ASD, and SCZ, SNPs for EP and FTD are not significantly enriched in PIRs for any of the cell
types as compared with background controls. Possible explanations are that noncoding SNPs in EP and
FTD may be disrupting functions in alternative cell types, acting outside of influencing chromatin-
mediated transcriptional regulation, or deriving from studies lacking power or reflecting a highly
heterogeneous disease biology. Meanwhile, SNPs for ALS and BD were enriched for in the neuronal

lineages but not the astrocytes. We also find that AD SNPs are highly enriched for in cortical excitatory

neuron and hippocampal DG-like neuron PIRs but not in PIRs for fetal astrocytes, whereas PD SNPs

display a complementary pattern of enrichment in fetal astrocyte PIRs but not PIRs for neuronal

cells. This enrichment pattern is consistent with the notion that AD is largely a disease of the forebrain,

whereas PD is more a disease of the midbrain, in which cortical excitatory neurons and hippocampal

DG-like neurons are absent. These findings also support the roles of excessive NMDA receptor activity

leading to neurodegeneration in glutamatergic neurons and early damage to adult hippocampal tissues in

well-known aspects of AD pathophysiology. Conversely, the enrichment of PD SNPs in fetal astrocyte

PIRs supports the emerging theory that astrocytes may play an initiating role in PD[34], based on evidence

that numerous genes implicated in PD have unique functions in astrocyte biology, as well as the

neuroprotective roles that astrocytes serve for dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra.

We find that 30 to 60% of noncoding tag SNPs have at least one SNP in LD overlapping with our

significant PIRs in one or more cell types (**Fig. 5b**). As it is common practice in association studies to

assign noncoding tag SNPs to their nearest neighboring genes, we were interested in determining what

proportion of noncoding tag SNPs had at least one SNP in LD interacting with their nearest neighboring

genes. Overall, we find that 549 noncoding tag SNPs have at least one SNP in LD interacting with their

nearest neighboring gene, whereas 399 noncoding tag SNPs interact exclusively with more distal genes

(**Fig. 5c, Supplementary Fig. 4a**). Furthermore, our interactions provide 4,823 additional cell type

specific gene targets other than the nearest neighboring gene for the set of all noncoding tag SNPs.

These results are summarized in **Supplementary Table 5**. Notably, one such interaction recapitulated a

previously published significant interaction between the *FOXG1* promoter and a PIR containing

noncoding SCZ SNPs over 700 kb away[6] (**Supplementary Fig. 4b**). To prioritize the list of noncoding

SNPs for variants possessing putative regulatory function and to address the challenge of determining

which SNPs are causal in potentially complex LD blocks, we focused on disease-associated SNPs in

PIRs that are simultaneously localized with open chromatin regions. The resulting curated lists of

disease-associated SNPs overlapping with ATAC-seq peaks and interacting with regulatory targets in

one or more cell types are reported in **Supplementary Table 5**. PIRs for these regulatory SNPs were

found to interact in a cell type-specific manner with genes possessing putative relevant function in the

context of their derivative diseases, demonstrating that an approach jointly prioritizing non-coding SNPs

according to their localization with open chromatin regions and specifying their regulatory targets using
pcHi-C holds significant promise for identifying novel regulatory mechanisms of disease.
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Validation of PIRs containing neurological disorder-associated regulatory variants
To validate PIRs associated with variants for complex neurological disorders, we selected two
regulatory loci targeting the *STRAP* and *DRD2* genes for knockdown via both CRISPRi and
CRISPR/Cas9-mediated deletion. STRAP influences the cellular distribution of the survival of motor
neuron (SMN) complex, which in turn facilitates spliceosome assembly and is associated with spinal
muscular atrophy[35]. Notably, interactions were detected across all cell types between the promoter of
STRAP and a distal PIR over 300 kb away containing regulatory BD SNPs in an intron for *PTPRO* (**Fig.**
5d). We derived three clones containing bi-allelic deletions for this candidate PIR and observed
significant down-regulation of *STRAP* expression in human cortical excitatory neurons (two sample t-
test, two-sided, p=9.4×10^{-13}). In addition, CRISPRi targeting of this PIR consistently revealed
significant down regulation of STRAP gene (**Supplementary Fig. 4c).** Next, we focused on a novel PIR
20 kb upstream from the promoter of *DRD2*, a gene encoding the D2 subtype of the dopamine receptor.
Previously, rs2514218, a noncoding variant 47 kb upstream from DRD2, was found to be significantly
associated with anti-psychotic drug response in a cohort of 100 schizophrenia patients[36]. This risk
variant is actually in LD with a cluster of regulatory SCZ SNPs that are localized to open chromatin
regions within our PIR of interest. *DRD2* is also the gene associated with the well-known Taq1A
polymorphism that is linked to addiction, anxiety, depression, and social problems, and for which the A1
allele is associated with reduced dopamine receptor density in neurons. We first demonstrate that mono-
allelic deletion of this PIR in three independent clones leads to significant down-regulation of *DRD2*
transcription (two sample t-test, two-sided, p=2.7×10^{-7}) (**Fig. 5e, Supplementary Fig. 4d**). Next, we
confirm that mono-allelic deletion of the *DRD2* PIR leads to allelic imbalance in the expression of
DRD2 in deletion clones, both by direct sequencing and through the more quantitative approach of
performing TOPO cloning and sequencing the PCR products of SNP-containing *DRD2* cDNA. *DRD2* is
a key gene possessing multifaceted roles in human brain function, and it has been implicated in
numerous other neurological disorders including bipolar disorder, addiction, migraine, and obesity[37]. By
identifying and validating novel regulatory loci for genes such as *DRD2*, our integrative approach
enables the discovery of novel therapeutic strategies, such as modulating gene expression through

targeting regulatory variants, and offers significant promise for developing novel insights and treatments

for otherwise intractable complex neurological disorders.

Genetics variants contribute to chromatin interaction bias and alterations in gene expression

Since regulatory variants and other genetic perturbations are thought to disrupt chromatin looping

between promoters and PIRs, we were interested to see if we could detect any instances of allelic bias

across our sets of significant promoter-PIR interactions. Therefore, we took advantage of our pcHi-C

data and performed genome-wide phasing of WTC11[38] variants using HaploSeq[39]. The resulting phased

WTC11 genome was used to identify interactions exhibiting allelic bias between 10 kb genomic bins

using HiC-Pro. We identified 22 of 3,962 or 0.56% of the interacting bins as being significantly biased

at a false discovery rate of 5%, suggesting that genetic diversity can indeed contribute to imbalanced

interactions between the two alleles (**Fig. 6a**). One notable loci presented biased interactions between a

PIR containing regulatory BD SNPs and the promoter of *SYT17* (q=0.0196). *SYT17* encodes one of the

synaptotagmins, membrane-trafficking proteins which mediate synaptic function and regulate calcium-

controlled neurotransmitter release[40]. The detection of chromatin interactions with allelic bias at this

locus suggests that regulatory SNPs can increase individual risk for BD by altering regulatory

interactions for *SYT17* (**Fig. 6b**).

In addition to determining whether regulatory variants could impart allelic bias at interaction loci, we

were interested to learn if we could find evidence that physical chromatin interactions can mediate the

effects of regulatory variants on gene expression. Expression quantitative trait loci (eQTLs) are genetic

loci at which variation correlates with expression of genes in a quantitative manner. Chromatin

interactions present a possible mechanism through which distal variants interact with and regulate

transcription for their targets genes. We first determined whether sets of significant eQTL-TSS pairs (q

< 0.05) for cortical, hippocampal, and cervical spinal cord tissues from GTEx V7[41] overlapped with our

significant chromatin interactions in a cell type-specific manner. We noticed a significant enrichment of

eQTL loci from matched tissues at PIRs (**Fig 6c**). Our results confirm that significant chromatin

interactions have the capacity to mediate quantitative expression differences by eQTL loci in a cell type-

specific manner.

Discussion

By generating the first cell type-specific *cis*-regulatory chromatin interaction maps in human neural

cells, we are able to provide a comprehensive annotation for previously uncharted regulatory

relationships between promoters and distal regulatory elements in the human CNS. We demonstrate that

PIRs are highly cell type-specific and directly linked to gene regulation. We also show that PIRs can be

used to gain insight into the mechanisms underlying cellular identity, as they are enriched for in

interactions with genes recapitulating key cell type-specific functions. Despite the similarity between the

closely related neural cell types used in this study, examination of cell type-specific distal open

chromatin regions at PIRs enables the intricate identification of TF-binding sites responsible for both the

specification and maintenance of cell identity and function.

GWAS SNPs for complex diseases have been challenging to interpret in the past due to the lack of

systematic annotation for noncoding regions. Promoter-PIR maps enable both the identification of novel

targets for regulatory sequences and the functional interpretation and prioritization of variants associated

with complex neurological disorders. We demonstrate through genome editing that PIRs can regulate

neurologically relevant genes with diverse functions in neuronal survival, synaptic activity, drug

response, and disease pathogenesis. We believe a large number of interesting candidate variants have

been reported in this study that would be interesting to validate in the future, and which may reveal

important disease biology. Finally, regulatory variants at PIRs linked to these genes may potentially

serve as therapeutic targets or biomarkers to aid in the development of novel treatments against

previously intractable complex neurological disorders. The epigenomic characterization of additional

cell types should continue to yield rich insights into the landscape of transcriptional regulation and

contribute towards the advancement of human health[42].

Methods

Cell culture

Human cortical excitatory neurons were generated using integrated, isogenic, and inducible neurogenin-

2 (Ngn2) iPSCs (i³N iPSCs) with doxycycline-inducible mouse Ngn2 integrated at the AAVS1 safe-

harbor locus. The i³N iPSC line has a well-characterized wild type genetic background (WTC11)[38]. A

simplified, two-step pre-differentiation and maturation protocol was used to generate the i³Neurons[7].

Briefly, i³N iPSCs were incubated with 2 μg/ml doxycycline in pre-differentiation media containing

KnockOut DMEM/F12 supplemented with 1x N-2, 1x NEAA, 1 μg/ml mouse laminin, 10 ng/ml BDNF,

and 10 ng/ml NT3. In addition, 10 μM Rock inhibitor was included in the pre-differentiation media for

the first day only. Media was changed daily for three days. For maturation, pre-differentiated i^{3}N

precursor cells were dissociated and subplated on poly-D-lysine/laminin plates in maturation media

containing equal parts DMEM/F12 and Neurobasal-A with 2 μg/ml doxycycline and supplemented with

0.5x B-27, 0.5x N-2, 1x NEAA, 0.5x GlutaMax, 1 μg/ml mouse laminin, 10 ng/ml BDNF, and 10 ng/ml

NT3. The doxycycline was omitted from all subsequent media changes. Half of the media was half

changed weekly over the first two weeks, then the amount of media was doubled on day 21. Thereafter,

a third of the media was replaced weekly.

Human hippocampal DG-like neurons were generated from dissociated hippocampal organoids

(unpublished). Briefly, human iPSC cells from the WTC11 line were grown on MEF feeder cells and

patterned towards a neural ectoderm fate using dual-SMAD inhibition as floating embryoid bodies

(EBs) in media containing 20% Knockout serum replacement. Next, EBs were patterned towards a

hippocampal fate using WNT and BMP in media containing N-2. After patterning, organoids were

dissociated using a neural dissociation kit (MiltenyiBiotech), plated on PDL/laminin coated plates, and

cultured for 4 weeks in media containing B-27, BDNF, GDNF, cAMP, and ascorbic acid.

WTC11 iPSCs with a doxycycline inducible transgene expressing NGN2, ISL1, and LHX3 integrated

into the AAVS1 locus were differentiated into motor neurons as previously reported[12]. Briefly, iPSCs

were maintained on growth factor-reduced Matrigel in StemFit media (Nacalai USA). On day 0, 1.5

x10^6 iPSCs were plated on 10cm dishes, followed 24 hours later by exchange into neural induction

media containing doxycycline and compound E. On day 3, the precursor cells were replated onto 12-

well plates coated with poly-D-lysine and laminin at a density of 2.5 x 10^5 cells per well. From day 3 to

4, the cells were treated with a pulse of 40 μM BrdU for 24 hours to suppress proliferation of

undifferentiated cells. Media was exchanged on day 4 and every three days thereafter until harvest.

Human primary fetal astrocytes (P0) were purchased from ScienCell Research Laboratories (Cat#1800)

and cultured using the prescribed media (Cat#1801). Briefly, cells were cultured in flasks coated with

poly-L-lysine (2μ/cm^2) and passaged once with trypsin/EDTA before harvesting.

All cells used in the present study were verified as mycoplasma contamination free.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 15 minutes at room temperature when mature (indicated in cell culture section). Fixed cells were washed repeatedly with PBS containing 0.1% Triton X-100 (PBS-T), then blocked in a solution of 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS-T at room temperature for 1 hour. Primary antibodies against Cux1 (ab54583, Abcam), MAP2 (ab5392, Abcam), HB9 (ABN174, Millipore), SMI32 (ab7795, Abcam), PROX1 (ab101851, Abcam), β-Tubulin (T8328, Sigma-Aldrich), GFAP (sc-9065, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), were diluted in 5% BSA solution and incubated overnight at 4°C. Secondary antibodies, including Alexa Fluor 568 goat anti-chicken IgG, Alexa Fluor 568 goat anti-mouse IgG, Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit IgG, Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-mouse IgG (Molecular Probes), were diluted in 5% BSA solution and incubated for 1-2 hours at room temperature. Images were acquired by Leica TCS SP8 confocal microscope with 40× oil-immersion objective lens.

Promoter capture Hi-C (pcHi-C)

In situ Hi-C libraries for the cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-like neurons, and fetal astrocytes were constructed from 1-2 million cells using HindIII as a restriction enzyme as previously described[43]. pcHi-C was performed using biotinylated RNA probes prepared as previously described (Jung et al., under review). Briefly, sets of 120 bp probes with 30 bp overhangs were designed to capture the sequences adjacent to restriction sites flanking each promoter-containing HindIII fragment. Three probes were used to target each side of a restriction site, for a total of 12 probes targeting each promoter-containing HindIII fragment. In total, promoters (defined as the regions up to 500 bp upstream and 500 bp downstream of each transcription start site) for 19,603 of 20,332 protein coding genes in GENCODE 19 were captured using this approach. While noncoding RNA promoters were not explicitly baited by this design, fragments containing 3,311 of 14,069 noncoding RNA promoters in GENCODE 19 were also targeted by the probes.

To perform the hybridization, 500 ng of the finished *in situ* Hi-C libraries were first mixed with 2.5 μg human Cot-1 DNA (Invitrogen #15279011), 2.5 μg salmon sperm DNA (Invitrogen #15632011), and 0.5 nmol each of the p5 and p7 IDT xGen Universal Blocking Oligos in a 10 μL volume, then denatured at 95°C for 5 min before holding at 65°C. Next, a hybridization buffer mix was prepared by mixing 25

μL 20x SSPE, 1 μL 0.5 M EDTA, 10 μL 50x Denhardt's solution, and 13 μL 1% SDS and pre-warmed

to 65°C. Finally, 500 ng of the probe mix was combined with 1 μL 20 U/μL SUPERase-In (Invitrogen

#AM2696) in a 6 μL volume, pre-warmed to 65°C, and promptly mixed with the library and

hybridization buffer mixes. The final solution was transferred to a humidified hybridization chamber and

incubated for 24 hours at 65°C. 0.5 mg Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin T1 (Invitrogen #65601) was

used to pull down the captured fragments in a binding buffer consisting of 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1 M

NaCl, and 1 mM EDTA, and the beads were washed once with 1x SSC and 0.1% SDS for 30 minutes at

25°C and three times with pre-warmed 0.1X SSC and 0.1% SDS at 65°C and 10 minutes per wash. The

final library was eluted in 20 μL nuclease-free water and sent for paired-end sequencing on either the

HiSeq 4000 (50 bp reads), HiSeq X Ten, or NovaSeq instruments (150 bp reads).

Detailed description of capture probe design and experimental procedures can be found in Jung et al.

(under revision).

ATAC-seq

ATAC-seq was carried out as previously described using the Nextera DNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina

#FC-121-1030)[44]. Cortical excitatory neurons and fetal astrocytes were first harvested using Accutase

and rinsed twice with PBS. Following resuspension into nuclei extraction buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH

7.5, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1% Igepal CA630, and 1x proteinase inhibitor) on ice, 50,000 cells

were counted out, exchanged into 1x Buffer TD, and incubated with 2.5 μL TDE1 for 30 minutes at

37°C. The libraries were purified on Qiagen MinElute spin columns, amplified using Nextera primers,

then size selected for fragments between 300 and 1000 bp using AMPure XP beads prior to being sent

for single-end sequencing on the HiSeq 4000 (50 bp reads).

Sequencing reads were mapped to hg19 and processed using the ENCODE pipeline. For cell types with

3 or more biological replicates, IDR was used to threshold the peaks for downstream analysis.

Overlapping peaks were used for cell types with 2 biological replicates. ATAC-seq peaks were

expanded to a minimum width of 500 bp for all downstream analysis. All data processing metrics are

reported in **Supplementary Table 1**.

RNA-seq

RNA from cortical excitatory neurons and fetal astrocytes was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit

(Qiagen #74104). Approximately 500 ng extracted RNA was used to construct libraries using the

TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina #20020594). Libraries were sent for single-end

sequencing on the HiSeq 4000 (50 bp reads). Raw sequencing reads were aligned to hg19/GRCh37

using STAR running the standard ENCODE parameters, and transcript quantification was performed in

a strand-specific manner using RSEM based on the GENCODE 19 annotation. The edgeR package in R

was used to calculate TMM-normalized RPKM values for each gene based on the expected counts and

normalized gene lengths reported by RSEM. All data processing metrics are reported in **Supplementary**

Table 1.

Validation of pcHi-C interaction loci using CRISPR/Cas9-mediated deletion

To validate genomic interactions captured by pcHi-C, several putative regulatory loci interacting with

neurological gene targets were deleted in the human i^3N iPSC line using CRISPR/Cas9 genome-editing.

For each locus, we designed a pair of sgRNAs to delete the candidate enhancer region as localized by

open chromatin or enhancer signal. sgRNAs were synthesized by Synthego and Cas9 protein was

sourced from QB3-Berkeley. To generate deletion lines, CRISPR/Cas9 nucleofections were performed

using the LONZA Human Stem Cell Nucleofector® Kit. For each nucleofection, 500,000 i^3N iPSCs

were transfected with Cas9:sgRNA RNP complex (12 μg Cas9, 10 μg sgRNA 1, 10 μg sgRNA 2) using

program "A-023" on the LONZA 4D-Nucleofector. The cells were seeded onto Matrigel-coated six well

plates containing Essential 8™ Medium (ThermoFisher #A15169-01) with Y-27632 for recovery

following nucleofection. After 48 hours, the cells were split into new six well plates at a concentration

of approximately 50 cells per well for picking single colonies. Deletion clones picked from the six well

plates were confirmed by genotyping PCR, and the i^3N iPSC CRISPR deletion lines were differentiated

into cortical excitatory neurons for quantifying the expression of genes targeted by the putative enhancer

loci after two weeks by qPCR. Clones with WT genotypes were used as controls. To perform the

quantification, total RNA from the cortical excitatory neurons was extracted using the Qiagen AllPrep

DNA/RNA Mini Kit, and cDNA was synthesized using the Bio-RAD iScript™ cDNA Synthesis Kit.

qPCR was performed using FastStart Essential DNA Green Master (Roche) on the LightCycler® 96

System (Roche). For DRD2 PIR, additional primers were designed to flank a SNP region in targeted

region in order to determine the genotypes of deleted clones by Sanger sequencing. Primers flank the

SNP containing exon were also used to determine the relative expression levels of the two alleles by

direct Sanger Sequencing and TOPO cloning and sequencing. Detailed information about the sgRNA

oligos, genotyping primers, and qPCR primers can be found in **Supplementary Table 7.**

Validation of pcHi-C interaction loci using CRISPRi

i3N iPSC induced neurons were infected with lentivirus carrying dCas9-KRAB-blast (Addgene

#89567), and colonies with low integration but high dCas9 expression levels were picked out. The

CROP-seq-opti vector (Addgene #106280) was used for sgRNA expression. sgRNA were designed

(ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies) and cloned into vector as described

previously. *[ref:Pooled CRISPR screening with single-cell transcriptome readout]* Validated assembly

products from mini-prep (QIAGEN #27104) are co-transfected with lentivirus packaging plasmids

pMD2.G (Addgene #12259) and psPAX (Addgene #12260) into 293T cells using PolyJet (SignaGen

Laboratories #SL100688) according to manufacture's instructions. Virus containing media was collected

for 72 hours, filtered by Millex-HV 0.45um (Millipore #SLHV033RS) and concentrated by Amicon

Ultra (Millipore #UFC801024). Virus was stored in -80°C before infection. The virus was titrated by

qPCR. Briefly, i3Neuron of 2 weeks are incubated with different volumes of virus for 12 hr. Genomic

DNA was extracted 72 hr later. The internal control for qPCR is targeting an intronic region (Forward:

TCCTCCGGAGTTATTCTTGGCA, Reverse: CCCCCCATCTGATCTGTTTCAC). Integration of

WPRE fragment was quantified compared to a control cell line with a known copy number of WPRE.

For CRISPRi validation on putative enhancers, 2-week-neurons was treated with lentivirus (MOI~3)

containing sgRNA. After 12hr 2/3 of the media was changed for 3 times. 7 days after transfection, cells

are collected for mRNA extraction. The expression of target genes are detected by qPCR.

Calling significant chromatin interactions

Paired-end sequencing reads were mapped to hg19, filtered, and deduplicated using the HiCUP pipeline

(v0.71) running bowtie2 and filtering for ditags between 100 and 1200 bp[45]. Significant interactions

were called using CHiCAGO, retaining baited fragments supported by at least 250 reads

(minNPerBaits=250). Interactions between HindIII fragments with a score (defined as the negative log

of the p-value) of 5 or greater in each cell type were defined to be significant chromatin interactions and

used for additional downstream processing. All data processing metrics are reported in **Supplementary**

Table 1.

To call overlaps between our sets of significant chromatin interactions and various genomic and
epigenomic features including promoters, chromatin signatures, and regulatory variants, interacting bins
were expanded to a minimum width of 5 kb, or kept as the size of the original fragments if their widths
exceeded 5 kb. Interactions involving fragments larger than 100 kb were omitted from our analysis due
to low resolution. Interactions were classified as promoter to promoter or promoter to other based on
overlap between their interacting ends and the set of all protein coding and noncoding RNA promoters
annotated in GENCODE 19. Finally, an interaction was considered to be shared between cell types if
both its ends intersected the corresponding ends of a significant interaction from another cell type. An
interaction was considered to be cell type-specific otherwise. To generate the interaction specificity
heatmap, each unique pair of significantly interacting loci was overlapped with the full set of
interactions for each cell type, and the maximum scoring overlapping interaction in each cell type was
used to populate the values in each column.

Chromatin state enrichment analysis
The annotations for the publicly available 15 state ChromHMM model were downloaded for the
dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, hippocampus, and normal human astrocytes. The states were merged as
follows: TssA and TssAFlnk were merged as TSS, TxFlnk, Tx, and TxWk were merged as Tx, EnhG
and EnhBiv were merged as other enhancer, and ReprPC and ReprPCWk were merged as ReprPC. All
other states (Enh, ZNF/Rpts, Het, TssBiv, and BivFlnk) were used as is. Enrichment analysis was
performed for each set of significant interactions by comparing the actual number of chromatin states
interacting with baited fragments against the mean number of chromatin states interacting with baited
fragments across 100 sets of bootstrapped interactions. To generate the bootstrapped interactions, the
baited fragments were left anchored while the interacting other ends were shuffled such that the
distribution of distances between the baited and other ends matched that of the original set.

Motif enrichment analysis at distal ATAC-seq peaks
We took the sets of all cell type-specific distal ATAC-seq peaks at PIRs and involved in cell promoter to
non-promoter interactions for each cell type, and used the sequences in 200 bp windows around the peak
summits to perform motif enrichment analysis using Homer. The entire genome was used as the
background. Enrichment significance values and expression values for each motif and its corresponding

TFs were reported for each cell type, with the union of the top 30 known motifs for each cell type
represented in the analysis.

VISTA Enhancer Browser correspondence analysis
Human enhancer regions and mouse enhancer regions with orthologous human sequences associated
with positive readouts in the VISTA Enhancer Browser were mined and analyzed for overlap with our
sets of significant interactions for each cell type. Of the 2,892 total tested elements reported in their
database, 2,845 were either originally from human or had orthologous human sequences, and 1,547 were
tested to be positive. Genes whose promoters were found to be interacting with positively tested
elements are reported in **Supplementary Table 3**. In addition, we determined the proportion of
positively tested elements that were found to interact with promoters of their nearest neighboring genes
as opposed to promoters of more distal genes, excluding cases where it was not feasible to resolve
interactions between the element and its nearest neighboring genes due to the features residing in the
same bin.

GWAS SNP interaction analysis
Tag SNPs for a total of eight neurological disorders including Alzheimer's disease (AD), attention
deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), amytrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), autism spectrum disorder
(ASD), bipolar disorder (BD), epilepsy (EP), frontotemporal dementia (FTD), Parkinson's disease (PD),
schizophrenia (SCZ), and unipolar depression (UD) were mined from the GWAS Catalog (December
2018) using a p-value threshold of 10^{-6}. Studies reporting variants associated with traits matching the
disorders as well as traits biologically associated with the disorders were included in our analysis. The
tag SNPs were imputed using HaploReg v4.1 at an LD threshold of 0.8 according to the reported study
population(s) for each SNP. The imputed SNPs were lifted over to hg19 and filtered for SNPs in
noncoding regions. See **Supplementary Table 4** for a detailed summary of the imputation process and
the list of studies used. Disease-specific enrichment for noncoding SNPs was calculated by taking the
ratio of the number of noncoding SNPs interacting with baited fragments in our sets of significant
interactions and the mean number of noncoding SNPs interacting with baited fragments in sets of
randomly shuffled interactions for each cell type, controlling for interaction distance.

To determine whether a tag SNP potentially interacted with a target gene, we determined whether any of

its promoters participated in a significant interaction with the tag SNP or any imputed SNPs in linkage

with the tag SNP on the other interacting end. Furthermore, we determined the proportion of tag SNPs

interacting with their nearest neighboring genes in the same way, except when the promoters for the

nearest gene and the SNPs of interest fell within the same bin and interactions could not be resolved.

Finally, we derived a list of interactions between imputed SNPs and target gene promoters for which the

imputed SNP was located within 1 kb of an ATAC-seq peak, indicating strengthened evidence for a

regulatory variant at that interacting locus.

Phasing of the WTC11 genome

The raw WTC11 genome sequence can be downloaded from http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-

bin/hgTracks?db=hg38&hubClear=https://s3-us-west-

2.amazonaws.com/downloads.allencell.org/genome-sequence/ucsc_hubs/WTC_genome_hub/hub.txt.

Phasing of the WTC11 genome was performed as previously described[39]. Briefly, WTC11 variants were

first split by chromosome and phase-informative pcHi-C reads extracted using extractHAIRS with the

minimum mapping quality set to 10 and the maximum insert size set to 30000000 bp[46]. Phasing was

performed using Hapcut with a maximum of 101 iterations. We next extracted the maximum variants

phased (MVP) haplotype block from the output of Hapcut to use as the seed haplotype. We modified the

"neighborhood correction" aspect of phasing by filtering phased variants whose predicted phase would

have a marginal probability below 0.99 using an in-house implementation of a phasing hidden Markov

model as described previously[47,48] using a reference panel of haplotypes from the 1000 Genomes

Project. Finally, missing variants were imputed using the same HMM using the reference haplotype set

from the 1000 Genomes Project.

The chromosome-wide SNP phasing data is available at the Gene Expression Omnibus under the

following accessible number: GSE113483

Allelic bias analysis

We utilized the phasing data for the WTC11 genome along with the allele specific mapping capabilities

of HiC-Pro to quantify genome-wide allelic bias between significantly interacting loci in the cortical

excitatory neurons. Briefly, reads were mapped using bowtie to a version of the hg19 reference genome

where all sites containing heterozygous phased SNPs were first N-masked. Next, nucleotides at the

masked polymorphic sites were used to assign the reads to either allele, with reads containing conflicting

allele assignments or unexpected bases omitted from further analysis. Read pairs with at least one allele

specific mate were used to construct allele specific Hi-C contact maps at 10 kb resolution, for which

interacting bins overlapping with the set of significant pcHi-C interactions with score >= 5 in WTC11

cell types (cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-like neurons, and lower motor neurons) was

used to detect bias. The binomial test was performed to assess allelic bias for each set of 10 kb

interacting bins, and the resulting p-values were adjusted using the BH method to filter out significantly

biased loci with an FDR cutoff of 0.05.

Data availability statement

All data sets used in this study (pcHi-C, ATAC-seq, RNA-seq, and chromosome-wide SNP phasing
data) are available at the Gene Expression Omnibus under the accession number GSE113483.
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Author contribution

MS and YS designed the study. MS, XY, XR, LM, IJ, KJ and TWT performed the experiments. MS,

MT, and LW performed data analysis. JD contributed to genomic phasing using HaploSeq. SL, JY, KW,

BC, FJ, GLM, HS, LD, CW, and LG contributed by providing cell samples. MS and YS prepared the

manuscript with assistance from all authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Genome-wide mapping of physical chromatin interactions in functionally distinct brain

cell types.

(**a**) Schematic of the study design for generating four functionally distinct neural cell types and

performing integrative analysis of chromatin interactions using promoter capture Hi-C, open chromatin

regions using ATAC-seq, and transcriptomes using RNA-seq. (**b**) Proportions of promoters and PIRs

interacting within TADs for each cell type. (**c**) Histogram of chromatin interaction distances across all

cell types and empirical cumulative distribution function plots of chromatin interaction distances for

each cell type. (**d**) Counts of promoter to promoter interactions (blue) and promoter to other interactions

(purple) for each cell type. (**e**) Percentages of cell type-specific and shared distal ATAC-seq peaks at

PIRs for each cell type.

Figure 2. Integrative analysis of epigenomic features, chromatin interactions, and gene expression.

(**a**) Histograms of the number of PIRs interacting with each annotated promoter with at least one

interaction for cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-like neurons, and fetal astrocytes. (**b**)

Enrichment of active chromatin states and depletion of repressive states as inferred by ChromHMM on

the H3K4me1, H3K4me3, H3K9me3, H3K27me3, and H3K36me3 histone modifications in matched

tissue types at significant PIRs (solid bars) versus shuffled PIRs (striped bars) for each cell type. Error

bars show the standard deviation. (**c**) Comparative global expression analysis for promoters interacting

with enhancer-PIRs versus repressive-PIRs. (**d**) Boxplot of the mean normalized expression (RPKM) for

genes with promoters grouped according to the number of enhancer-PIRs they are interacting with.

Linear regression was performed on the means for each bin.

Figure 3. Cell type-specific PIRs and TF motif enrichment analysis.

(**a**) Classification of cell type-specific promoter-PIR interactions into specificity categories based on their interaction scores in cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-like neurons, lower motor neurons, and fetal astrocytes. Cell type-specific distal open chromatin peaks in these interactions are used for TF motif enrichment analysis. The number of promoter-PIR interactions in each category is displayed in **Supplementary Fig. 3a**. (**b**) Enrichment of consensus motif sequences for TFs in cell type-specific open chromatin regions at PIRs and relative expression levels of the corresponding TFs. The size of each circle represents the normalized expression of the TF corresponding to that motif (RPKM), and the color of each circle represents the degree of enrichment for that motif in each cell type.

Figure 4. Validation of promoter-PIR interactions.

(**a**) Number of *in vivo* validated enhancers from the VISTA Enhancer Browser overlapped by promoter-PIR pairs in this study. 532 or 34.4% of all functional human enhancer elements are recovered by our interactions. In addition, the numbers of neural and non-neural enhancers are shown. (**b**) Numbers of *in vivo* validated enhancers interacting with their nearest neighboring genes (center) versus those interacting exclusively with more distal genes (left). The total number of non-neighboring gene targets across all interacting elements is also shown (right). (**c**) Functional validation of a predicted enhancer element (mm999) and its target gene by CRISPR deletion. Top panel contains a WashU Epigenome Browser[49] snapshot of the genomic locus for *CDK5RAP3* and significant chromatin interactions between the promoter of *CDK5RAP3* and two downstream PIRs with open chromatin regions in cortical excitatory neurons. Bottom panel contains CRISPRi targeting results for an open chromatin region 30 kb downstream from the *CDK5RAP3* promoter (yellow highlight) within the larger 6 kb enhancer element from the VISTA Enhancer Browser (blue highlight). Significant down-regulation of *CDK5RAP5* was observed using two independent sgRNAs in cortical excitatory neurons. Expression levels for neighboring genes (*MRPL10*, *PNPO*, and *NFE2L1*) are also shown. Each sgRNA CRISPRi experiment was performed three times, and each time with three technical replicates (* $p=0.02$, **** $p<10^{-4}$, Student's t-test).

Figure 5. Genetic analysis of chromatin interactions with complex neurological disorder-associated SNPs.

(**a**) Enrichment analysis for noncoding imputed SNPs from ten complex neurological diseases in
significant versus shuffled PIRs. Disorders included disorders including Alzheimer's disease (AD),
attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), autism spectrum
disorder (ASD), bipolar disorder (BP), epilepsy (EP), frontotemporal dementia (FTD), Parkinson's
disease (PD), schizophrenia (SCZ), and unipolar depression (UD). (**b**) Proportions and total counts of
noncoding tag SNPs with at least one SNP in LD participating in long-range chromatin interactions in
cortical excitatory neurons (blue), hippocampal DG-like neurons (orange), motor neuron (yellow), fetal
astrocytes (green), or more than one cell type (grey). (**c**) Numbers of noncoding tag SNPs with at least
one SNP in LD interacting with their nearest neighboring genes (center) versus those interacting
exclusively with more distal genes (left). The total number of non-neighboring gene targets across all
noncoding tag SNPs and diseases is also shown (right). (**d**) A PIR containing a region of open chromatin
and a cluster of SNPS associated with BP in an intron for *PTPRO* interacts with the promoter of the
STRAP gene over 300 kb away (highlighted in yellow, red arch highlight the interactions between
STRAP promoter and CRISPR deleted region). Homozygous deletion of this region in three independent
clones in cortical excitatory neurons resulting in significant down-regulation of *STRAP* (right panel).
Each bar represents the mean ± s.e.m. (**e**) A PIR containing open chromatin regions and clusters of SNPs
associated with SCZ interact with the promoter of *DRD2* in cortical excitatory neurons (left panel).
Mono-allelic deletion of this region using CRISPR results in significant down-regulation of *DRD2* in
cortical excitatory neurons (right panel). Each bar represents the mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 6. Genetics variants contribute to chromatin interaction bias and alterations in gene
expression.
(**a**) Quantile-quantile plot of allelic bias for chromatin interactions in cortical excitatory neurons. (**b**) An
example of an allelic biased interaction between a PIR containing a cluster of SNPs associated with BD
(orange highlight) and the promoter of *SYT17* (green highlight). Heterozygous WTC11 SNPs at the PIR
are shown, along with a bar graph of their detected read counts in our pcHi-C datasets. (**c**) Enrichment of
eQTL loci at significant versus shuffled PIRs in matched tissue types for cortical excitatory neurons,
hippocampal DG-like neurons, and motor neurons. Error bars show the standard deviation.

Supplementary Figure 1. Identifying PIRs in human brain cells. (**a**) Immunofluorescence staining
showing the expression of cortical markers CUX1 and MAP2 in cortical excitatory neurons. The yield of

mature cortical neurons is calculated as the percentage of CUX1 and MAP2 double positive cells in total

live cells. Immunofluorescence staining demonstrating that lower motor neurons express HB9, a motor

neuron identity marker, and pan-neuronal neurofilament marker SMI32. The yield of mature motor

neurons is calculated as the percentage of HB9 and SMI32 double positive cells in total live cells.

Immunofluorescence staining showing that hippocampal DG-like neurons express PROX1, a

transcription factor constitutively expressed in the hippocampal DG cell lineage. The yield of mature

hippocampal neurons is calculated as the percentage of PROX1 and MAP2 double positive cells in total

live cells. Immunofluorescence staining showing that astrocytes express GFAP. The yield is calculated

as the percentage of GFAP positive cells in total live cells. Data are mean ± sem (N and total cell

number are indicated). (**c**) The fetal astrocytes used in this study exhibit an expression profile consistent

with their identity as astrocyte progenitor cells. Heatmap displays normalized gene expression values for

astrocyte progenitor markers (highly expressed) versus mature astrocytes markers (lowly expressed). (**c**)

Numbers of coding and noncoding promoters participating in chromatin interactions for each cell type.

Supplementary Figure 2. Correlation between chromatin states at PIRs and gene targets

expression. (**a**) Histograms of the number of significant chromatin interactions per gene. The average

number of significant interactions for each cell type are marked with a red line. (**b**) Comparative global

expression analysis for promoters interacting with enhancer-PIRs versus repressive-PIRs for each cell

type. (**c**) Boxplot of the mean normalized expression (RPKM) for promoters grouped according to the

number of enhancer-PIRs they are interacting with for each cell type.

Supplementary Figure 3. Promoter long-range chromatin interactions are cell type-specific. (**a**)

Venn diagram displaying numbers of overlapping promoter-PIR interaction loci that are significant in

cortical excitatory neurons, hippocampal DG-like neurons, lower motor neurons, and fetal astrocytes

(groups 1-15 in **Fig. 3a**). (**b**) Examples of cell type-specific interactions between PIRs and the promoters

of *GRIN2B* and *CHAT* (orange highlight). (**c**) Significant down-regulation of *CDK5RAP5* was observed

in three independent homozygous deletion clones in cortical excitatory neurons. Each bar represents the

mean ± s.e.m.

Supplementary Figure 4. Using chromatin interaction to elucidate the functions of GWAS SNPs.

(**a**) Numbers of noncoding tag SNPs with at least one SNP in LD interacting with their nearest

neighboring genes (center) versus those interacting exclusively with more distal genes (left) for each disease. The total number of non-neighboring gene targets is also shown (right) for each disease. (**b**) Significant interactions in cortical excitatory neurons and hippocampal DG-like neurons detected via pcHi-C recapitulate a previously reported interaction between the *FOXG1* promoter and a distal ATAC-seq peak containing a schizophrenia SNP[6]. (**c**) qPCR results for *STRAP* and its neighboring genes *PTPRO*, *MGST1*, *WBP11* with CRISPRi targeting the PIR interacting with the *STRAP* promoter. Each CRISPRi experiment was performed three times, and each time with three technical replicates (***p<10^{-3}, **** *p*<10^{-4}, Student's t-test). (**d**) Schematic of detected genotypes in the *DRD2* gene and its deleted regulatory PIR in mono-allelic deletion clones. Genotyping and RT-PCR sequencing of WTC11 variants in *DRD2* reveal biased expression between the two alleles for the *DRD2* gene, corresponding to the deletion of the PIR in one of the alleles. Results for the two control clones and three deletion clones are shown for comparison. Each bar represents the mean ± s.e.m.

Tables

Supplementary Table 1. pcHi-C, ATAC-seq, and RNA-seq data processing metrics.

Supplementary Table 2. Significant interactions called by CHiCAGO.

Supplementary Table 3. Putative target genes for in vivo validated enhancer elements.

Supplementary Table 4. GWAS SNP imputation summary.

Supplementary Table 5. Putative target genes for neurological disorder-associated SNPs.

Supplementary Table 6. Sequence and primer information for the CRISPR experiments

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

a

201 non-neural enhancers

331 neural enhancers

1,547 in vivo validated human enhancer elements

b

Nearest gene 230

New interaction targets 827

c

Figure 5

Figure 6

a

cortical interactions allelic bias

0.56%
(q<0.05)

c

eQTL enrichment

b

Figure S1

Figure S2

Figure S3

a

c

b

Hippocampal-specific interactions at *GRIN2B* promoter

Motor-specific interactions at *CHAT* promoter

Figure S4